Government - NGO Interface in

DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT

Dr. Afroza Begum

AHDPH

A H DEVELOPMENT PUBLISHING HOUSE

The study leading to this publication was conducted to obtain an overview of the Government of Bangladesh policies regarding the Non governmental organization (NGOs) engaged in development; to examine the existing modalities of collaboration between the government and the NGOs; and to see whether those models were viable . It also aims at making an assessment of the strengths and weakness of those models in fulfilling the development needs of Bangladesh.

'Development Administration' and 'Development Management' are explained as different approaches; the structure and process of development management in Bangladesh is also presented. Moreover, the book elaborates on the institution building and its major features within the broad framework of development management. Attempts are made to define and categories the NGOs.

The book also explains the institutional strategies of the NGOs and presents different view on the possible relationships between the government and the NGOs. IN this context, it shows the genesis, function, strengths and weaknesses of the NGOs both the global and at the national levels. Views and debate on he role of the discussed. Government -NGO collaboration projects, existing legal framework as well as strengths and weaknesses of collaborative programs are also covered.

ISBN 984 - 8360 - 00 - X

BD Tk.	:	450.00
R.S.	:	400.00
U.S.	:	$40.00
EURO	:	€35.00

Government -NGO Interface in Development Management

Experiences of selected Collaboration Models in Bangladesh

6X0

Dr. Afroza Begum

AHDPH A H Development Publishing House

Publisher
Md. Aynul Hossain
A H Development Publishing House.
143, Govt. New Market, Dhaka -1205.
Tel: 8627650, 01715022927
E-mail:ahdphd@gmail.com

Copyright: The Author

First Published in Finland by Department of Administrative Science, University of Tampere, Tampere-2000

Second Edition in Bangladesh: 2003
Third Edition in Bangladesh: 2008

ISBN: 984-8360-00-X

Cover Designed: Mostafa Kamal Sento

Distributor in India
Paragon Enterprise
1, Meher Ali Road (1st Floor)
Kolkata- 700 017 (India)
Tel: 0091-2280- 28924 -25

Printer: Metropolitan Printers & Publishers

All rights reserved by the publisher. No part of this book can be reproduced in any form (illegal mechanical, including Photocopying) without permission from the publisher.

I would like to dedicate this book to my parents-

Late A.K.M. Kefayet Ullah
&
Jahanara Begum

Table of Contents

Dedication	iii
Table of Contents	v
Acknowledgement	ix
Preface	xi
Abbreviations	xiii
Chapter 1: Prologue	
1.1 Introduction	01
1.2 Features of government and NGO administration in Bangladesh	04
1.3 GOB's View Regarding NGOs	07
1.4 Potential Research Area	07
1.5 The Research Problem	08
1.6 Objectives	11
1.7 Methodology	11
Chapter 2: Basic Concepts and Approaches	
2.1 Introduction	13
2.2 Development: A concepiual overview	13
2.3 Development Administration	15
2.4 Development Management & Its Approaches	16
2.5 Institution Building: Definition and Features	21
2.6 Features of Institution Building	23
2.7 Voluntarism	24
2.8 Definition and typology of NGOs	24
2.9 Institutional Strategies	28
2.10 Conclusion	31
Chapter 3: Development Management in Bangladesh: Structure and Process	
3.1 Introduction	33
3.2 Project Management Concept	33
3.3 Project Management in Bangladesh	34
3.4 Planning Process in Bangladesh	35
3.5 Functions of Planning Commission	36
3.6 Other Institutional Framework of Development Management	47
3.7 Conclusion	48

Chapter 4: Role of The NGOs: A Global Perspective

4.1 Introduction 51
4.2 Philosophy of NGOs 51
4.3 Emergence of NGOs 52
4.4 Critical Factors of the Expansion of the NGOs 54
4.5 Strenghs of NGOs 56
4.6 Weaknesses of NGOs 58
4.7 Development Assistance and NGO Sector 60
4.8 Conclusion 62

Chapter 5: NGOs in Bangladesh: An Overview

5.1 Introduction 63
5.2 Emergence of NGOs in Bangladesh 63
5.3 Approaches of NGO Operation 64
5.4 Background of Emergence o NGOs 66
5.5 Scope of NGO Operation 67
5.6 Functional Coverage of NGOs 69
5.7 Sources of Funding of the NGOs 72
5.8 Debate on the Role of NGOs 74
5.9 NGOs as Perceived by the Fundamentalist in Bangladesh 79
5.10 Conclusion 79

Chapter 6: The Legal and Regulatory Framework for the NGOs in Bangladesh

6.1 Introduction 81
6.2 Elements of the Legal Framework 81
6.3 Laws and Ordinance for Regulating Association with the Government 83
6.4 Establishment of the Government NGO Consultation Council 84
6.5 Regulatory Institution: The NGO Affairs Bureau (NGOAB) 84
6.6 Conclusion 86

Chapter 7: Government-NGO Collaboration: Regional Focus

7.1 Introduction 87
7.2 Government (GO) NGO Relationship: A Love Hate Relationship 87
7.3 Collaboration: The Dynamic Process of Development 90
7.4 GO-NGO Collaboration: The Rational 91
7.5 Advantages of Collaboration 93
7.6 Preconditions of Collaboration 94
7.7 Types of Collaboration 94
7.8 Models of Collaboration in Different Countries 97
7.9 GO-NGO Collaboration in African Countries 98
7.10 Collaboration Models in South, and South East, Asia 99
7.11 GO-NGO Collaboration: The World Bank Model 102

7.12 Assessment of GO-NGO Collaboration Models 103
7.13 Problems of Collaboration 104
7.14 Conclusion 106

Chapter 8: NGOs in Health and Population Management
8.1 Introduction 107
8.2 NGOs and Health and Population Management 107
8.3 Health Sector NGOs in Bangladesh 110
8.9 Conclusion 113

Chapter 9: GO–NGO Collaboration in Bangladesh: Case Study of Two Selected Programs
9.1 Introduction 115
9.2 GO-NGO Collaboration in Bangladesh 116
9.3 GO-NGO Collaboration Models in Bangladesh 118
9.4 GO-NGO Collaboration Health and Population Management Two Case Studies 125
9.5 Functional Flow of GO-NGO Collaboration 127
9.6 Empirical Analysis 131
9.7 Conclusion 142

Chapter 10: Conclusions and Recommendations
10.1 Introduction 145
10.2 Recommendations 151
10.3 Future Research Agenda 152

List of Tables

Table 1.1 Characteristic Features of Government and NGO Administration 5
Table 2.1 Development Models: Approaches and Conceptual Basis 14
Table 2.2 Comparison among the approaches of development management 20
Table 2.3 Typology of NGOs 28
Table 2.4 Strategies of Development oriented NGOs: Four Generations 30
Table 3.1 The Planning process in Bangladesh 38
Table 3.2 Types of Projects by Magnitude of Investment and Approving Authority 40
Table 3.3 Rate of Implementation of ADP Projects 42
Table 3.4 Problem of Public sector Project Implementation (in Rank Order) 45
Table 4.1 NGO assistance to the development of Third world: 1970-1985(us$ in billion) 61
Table 5.1 Number of NGOs receiving foreign funding 68

Table 5.2	Growth of foreign funded NGOs in Bangladesh	68
Table 5.3	Source of NGO Financing in Bangladesh	72
Table 5.4	Amount of Foreign Funds Released through NGO Affairs Bureau	73
Table 7.1	Mutual Benefits of GO-NGO Collaboration	94
Table 7.2	Examples of Collaboration in Africa	98
Table 7.3	GO-NGO Collaboration Models in the Philippines	100
Table 7.4	GO-NGO Collaboration Models in India	101
Table 8.1	Growth of health sector NGOs in Bangladesh	111
Table 8.2	Location of health sector NGOs in Bangladesh	111
Table 8.3	Location-wise Growth of Health sector NGOs in Bangladesh	112
Table 8.4	Thana Coverage of Health Project NGOs in Bangladesh	112
Table 8.5	Number of Beneficiaries covered by the Health Project NGOs in Bangladesh	113
Table 9.1	GO-NGO Collaboration Models in Bangladesh	120
Table 9.2	Response regarding the need for GO-NGO collaboration	131
Table 9.3	Successful mechanisns of GO-NGO collaboration	133
Table 9.4	Potenciai Sectors / areas of collaboration	135
Table 9.5	Positive Impacts of GO-NGO Collaboration	136
Table 9.6	Negative impacts of Collaborative Programs	137
Table 9.7	Assessment of Influence of GOB on the activities of NGOs	138
Table 9.8	Areas where NGOs can complement GOB	139

List of Figure

Figure 1	GO –NGO Collaboration: A Thematic Model	2
Figure 2	Components of Annual plan	38
Figure 3	Preparation of Annual Development program in Bangladesh	40
Figure 4	Delay in project Implementation	46
Figure 5	A.D.P Over years	47
Figure 6	Functional Flow of Collaboration between GOB and NGO	127
Figure 7	Prescribed Alternative Working Flow for GO-NGO Collaboration	150

Bibliography 153
Index 161

Acknowledgement

This book entitled "Government-NGO Interface in Development Management: Experiences of Selected Collaboration Models in Bangladesh" grew out from my doctoral dissertation submitted to the University of Dhaka in 1999. From many well-wishers, I received help, guidance and advice at the time of writing the thesis. I remember all of them with gratitude, though I can not mention their names individually for the spatial limitation.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude and appreciation to my supervisor, Professor Dr. Salahuddin Md. Aminuzzaman. It would not have been possible for me to complete this work without his help, advice and overall supervision. His constant encouragement and supervision throughout the period of my research have been the greatest incentive for me and directly contributed to the accomplishment of the task. I am also indebted to Professor Juha Vartola of the department of Administrative Science, University of Tampere, Finland, who kindly spared for me much of his valuable time to comment on the manuscript. No words of appreciation can sufficiently compensate for the immense gratitude that I owe to him.

Grateful acknowledgement is due to the authority of the University of Chittagong for granting me a study leave to carry out the research. I would like to express my gratitude and very special thanks to Bangladesh University Grants Commission for the financial help, it provided me as a junior research fellow, to complete this dissertation. Equally I would also like to record my sincere gratitude and indebtedness to the research project "Non-Governmental Organizations in Development" funded by the Academy of Finland and co-ordinated by the University of Tampere for providing me a grant for the year 1998. The Grameen Trust also provided financial support to undertake the field work of the study.

I am grateful to Professor Ramesh K. Arora, Professor of Public Administration and Dean of the Faculty of Social Science of Jaipur University, India and Professor Md. Shamsur Rahman, Professor and Chairman of Public Administration of the University of Rajshahi, who made valuable comments on the manuscript of the study and gave me inspiration to publish it. I would like to acknowledge my debts to my respected teachers- Professor Mohammad Mohabbat khan, Professor Syed Giasuddin Ahmed, Professor M. Asaduzzaman and Professor Nazmunnesa Mahtab for their inspiration. I wish to thank all my colleagues of the University of Chittagong especially Dr. Samiul Hasan, Dr. Nizamuddin Ahmed and Dr. Niaz Ahmed Khan for their co-operation. I do acknowledge my debt to authors of those works from which I have been immensely benefited. I mention the acknowledgement in the text of the book and particularly in the bibliography.

All the concerned functionaries of BRAC, CARE and the Government of Bangladesh helped me in collecting data, deserved gratitude for their cooperation. I am also thankful to library staff of different libraries, who gave their cooperation in conducting and completing the study.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to the Department of Administrative Science, University of Tampere, Finland for taking the initiative to publish the thesis. I am thankful to Mr. Farhad Hossain, Mr. Marko Ulvila and Ms. Mari Poikolainen- Research Fellows of the University of Tampere, Finland-who took the responsibilities to publish the book.

I would like to express my gratitude to Mr. Aynul Hossain for expressing his keen interest to publish this book again and also took initiative to publish it from Bangladesh.

I acknowledge with warm gratitude the constant eternal support, understanding and encouragement of my husband Md. Nazmus Saadat, without which the work would have been more difficult. He was the constant source of encouragement for me. I must remember my sons-Polash and Akash, for the understanding with which they sacrificed their rights to the moments they could have spent with me.

Finally, I am lovingly grateful to my parents –Late A.K.M. Kefayet Ullah and Jahanara Begum for their love, affection and motivation made it possible to accomplish this work and I would like to dedicate this book to them.

Preface

This study was designed to get an overview of the GOB policies regarding the NGOs; to examine the existing modalities of collaboration between the government and the NGOs; and to see whether those models were viable. It was also aimed at making an assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of those models in fulfilling the development needs of the country.

One national NGO and one international NGO, both having long years of experience in providing health and family planning services at the grassroots level and have had collaborative programs with the GOB, were studied.

Data were collected through interview method and two semi-structured questionnaires were prepared for this purpose. Relevant GOB and NGO functionaries both at the headquarters and field levels were interviewed and their operational procedures of collaboration were carefully observed at the time of data collection. Thirty GOB staff and 60 NGO staff, 30 from each NGO, were interviewed for this purpose.

This study has explained and differentiated 'Development Administration' and 'Development Management' and has presented the structure and process of development management in Bangladesh. It has further elaborated the major concepts and approaches of development management, such as, the blueprint approach, learning process approach and the structured flexibility approach. It has also explained institution building and its major features within the broad framework of development management.

Attempts have been made to define and categorize the NGOs. The study also explained the institutional strategies of the NGOs and has presented different views on the possible relationships between the government and the NGOs. In this context it has shown the genesis, growth, function, strengths and weaknesses of the NGOs both at the global and at the national levels. It has specifically focused on the operational approaches of the NGOs in Bangladesh and their sources of funds. At the same time, different views and debate on the role of the NGOs in the socio-economic development of the country have been discussed.

It has presented different justifications in favor of GO-NGO collaboration and the possible benefits that can be derived from such collaboration. It has shown certain preconditions for effective GO-NGO collaboration and has presented various types of collaboration. In this context, different collaborative models in different countries including certain models from Bangladesh are highlighted. The problems of GO-NGO collaboration are also discussed.

The existing legal framework that regulates the NGO activities in Bangladesh is highlighted. The role of the NGO Affairs Bureau (NGOAB) and

the recently established Government NGO Consultative Council (GNCC) to control as well as to facilitate the NGO activities in Bangladesh are also discussed.

The major findings of the two NGO case studies namely, the collaborative health care and family planning programs of BRAC and CARE with the GOB, which were the core of this study, are discussed. These findings revealed that most of the respondents of the GOB and the NGOs acknowledged the necessity of GO-NGO collaboration with a view to organizing and managing development projects more effectively. They identified certain strengths as well as weaknesses of collaborative programs. The strengths include: scope for experimentation with new ideas and models in the context of development management; development of unique grassroots level network for program planning and implementation; introduction of innovative program management style; opportunity for mutual learning and transfer of knowledge; and scope for ensuring people's participation. They also noted certain weaknesses of GO-NGO collaboration programs, such as, inter-organizational conflict; confusion regarding unity and line of command in the context of dual supervision; and mutual mistrust between the GOB and NGO staff. The respondents also ranked the successful mechanisms and potential areas of GO-NGO collaboration. They also identified the functional areas where NGOs could complement the GOB through such collaboration. The findings also revealed the problems faced by the respondents in those collaborative programs.

The findings of the study further indicated that the Government of Bangladesh, in principle, had accepted the NGOs as partner of development. But the government did not have any specific policy regarding effective and systematic involvement of the NGOs in development activities of the country. Both the collaborative projects, which were studied, had some built-in design-errors such as, problems of dualism in program operation, lack of orientation of GOB staff about the operational modalities of the project, negligence towards monitoring and evaluation etc.

Finally, it has been shown in this study that though all the features of institution building are not present in the working collaboration model, it has, to a great extent, reflected some of the significant features of institution building. Thus it can be said that it would be possible to address the existing problems and constraints in the context of GO-NGO collaboration. However, it would require a serious attempt and commitment of both the counterparts to make it an institutionally viable model for development management in Bangladesh.

Abbreviations

ADB	Asian Development Bank
ADAB	Association of Development Agency in Bangladesh
ADP	Annual Development Programme
ASA	Association for Social Advancement
ATAP	Annual Technical Assistance Programme
BRAC	Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
CARE	Coalition for American Relief Everywhere
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DANIDA	Royal Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs
DSW	Department of Social Welfare
ERD	Economic Relation Division
FFYP	Fifth five year plan
FP-FP	Family Planning Facilitations Programme
FDR	Foreign Donation Regulation
GB	Grameen Bank
GED	General Economic Division
GO	Government Organization
GOB	Government of Bangladesh
GO -NGO	Government & Non Governmental Organization
GOP	Government of Pakistan
GNCC	Government NGO Consultative Council
HORTEX	Horticulture for Export
HPD	Health & Population Development
IMED	Implementation, Monitoring & Evaluation Division
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IS	Investment Schedule
MMC	Mennonite Centre Committee
MAWTS	Mirpur Agriculture Workshop & Training School
MCH-FP	Mother & Child Health & Family planning
MTPDP	Medium term Philippine Development Plan
MOHFW	Ministry of Health and Family Welfare
MOA	Ministry of Agriculture
NEC	National Economic Council
NFPE	Non-Formal Primary Education
NGO	Non –Governmental Organization
NGOAB	Non –Governmental Organization Affairs Bureau
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development Co-operation
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PC	Planning Commission
PKSF	Palli Karma Shahayak Foundation
RDRS	Rangpur Dinajpur Rural Service

SIDA	Swiss International Development Assistance
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCA	United Nation Educational Scientific and Cultural Affairs
UNDTCD	United Nation Development Trade and Conference Division
UNCTAD	United Nation Conference on Trade and Development
UNESCO	United Nation Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization.
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VHSS	Voluntary Health and Social Services
VSW	Voluntary Social welfares Agencies
WB	World Bank

Chapter 1
Prologue

1.1 Introduction

The emergence of the Non-governmental Organization sector is a significant phenomenon from the standpoint of development. By playing an important role in development, this sector has earned its own identity all over the world. Over the last several decades, the meaning, nature and scope of development have undergone considerable changes. Between 1950 and 1970, the main focus of development was on economic growth and increased production. Since the beginning of 1970, the motion of development has centered mostly on redistributive justice, aimed at improving the quality of the life of the poor, fulfilling their basic needs and reducing relative inequality and absolute poverty (Sisaye, 1980). But a varity of reasons, neither the state nor the market has actually succeeded in realizing most of the targets. The NGOs have emerged as "third sector" with a view to addressing the needs of development.

Over the last decade, the NGO-movement has become matured and gained both momentum and support. The recent world has witnessed the emergence of the NGOs as an increasingly visible and forceful presence on the international development scene (Paul, 1991). The changing global environment realized the important role of the NGOs and eagerly recognized the NGOs as development partner. The rise of the NGOs in the global context is identified as an important phenomenon, which has implication for the development prospects of the poor. The popularity of the NGOs with governments and donors is also identified as equally important (Edward and Hulme, 1996). Interest in the work of the NGOs has increased remarkably over the last ten years with growing recognition of the inadequacy, constraints, limitations and sometimes inappropriateness of governmental efforts in a variety of fields (Peggy, 1987). The NGOs are seen as the preferred channel for providing services. They are considered as a counterweight to state power, protecting human rights, opening up channels of communication and participation (Edward and Hulme, 1996). Besides, the role of the NGOs is well accepted because it is believed that the difficulties faced by the government in providing its services can be relieved

by closer collaboration with the NGOs (Farrington and Bebbington ed., 1992). Thus, the NGOs have proliferated as an effective complement to government agencies in providing social services.

In other words, gradually the NGOs have become partners of development paradigm along with the public and private sectors. The global trend of the present world is to utilize the institutional strengths as well as the potentials of all the sectors for the sake of development. From this point of view, the existing factors of the recent global perspective encourage GO-NGO interaction as well as collaboration. The following figure focuses on the existing factors that encourage GO-NGO collaboration.

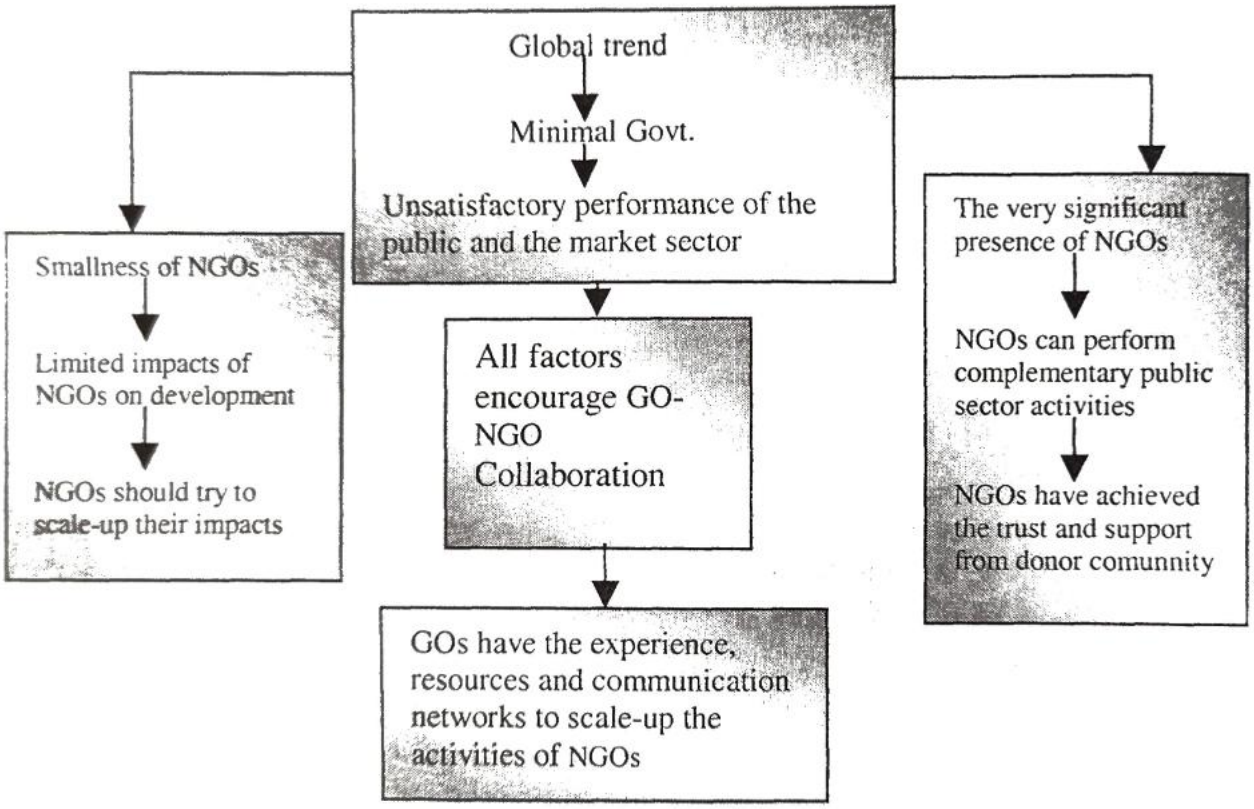

Global trend
Minimal Govt.
Unsatisfactory performance of the public and the market sector
Smallness of NGOs
Limited impacts of NGOs on development
NGOs should try to scale-up their impacts
All factors encourage GO-NGO Collaboration
The very significant presence of NGOs
NGOs can perform complementary public sector activities
NGOs have achieved the trust and support from donor comunnity
GOs have the experience, resources and communication networks to scale-up the activities of NGOs

Figure-1: GO-NGO Collaboration: A Thematic Model

The present global policy encourages minimal government and also highlights the unsatisfactory performance of the public and market sectors (Paul, 1991). Poor performance of the state helps the growth and spread of the NGO sector (Farrington and Bebbington ed., 1993). The NGOs play a very significant role in the development scene and demonstrate their potentials to perform successfully the complementary public sector activities (Farrington and Bebbington ed., 1993).

Thus the NGOs have become one of the core partners in development management especially in the developing countries since the 1980s. To scale up their limited but potential impacts on development, GO-NGO

collaboration is needed. Because government has the experience, resources and communication network to scale up the NGOs' programs. Interactions and institutional collaboration between the governmental organisation (GO) and the NGOs, therefore, has become an institutional strategy for development (Aminuzzaman, 1995).

A healthy GO-NGO relationship is only conceived where both parties share common objectives, where the Government has a social positive agenda and where the NGOs are effective, there is the potential for a strong collaborative relationship. Such relationship does not mean the subcontracting of placid NGOs, but a genuine partnership between the Government and the NGOs to work together based on mutual respect, acceptance of autonomy, independence and pluralism of NGO opinions and positions (Korten, 1988).

Alongside profit making enterprises and the government, the emergence, growth and survival of the NGOs as an institutional form is a significant phenomenon for the recent world, which invites an intellectual inquiry of many scholars of many countries. The NGOs are treated as complementary strength of the state as well as the market (Paul, 1991).

Several theories have been developed by the western social scientists to explain the emergence of the NGOs (Weisbrod, 1988; Hansmann, 1980; Ben-ner, 1986). The dominant approach in this context is to explain the phenomenon of the NGOs in terms of the failure of the state and the market. The following theories are well known to explain the emergence of the NGO sector.

The Subsidy Theory: Weisbrod developed the subsidy theory, which asserts that institutional form of the NGOs is a response to the many implicit and explicit subsidies made available to the NGOs by the state. Support and donations to the NGOs through a variety of subsidies encourages the activities of the NGOs such as education, health, poverty alleviation and welfare. The deductibility of donations on the donor's tax returns stimulates giving because it reduces the after tax-cost to the donor. Similarly, the tax subsidies to the NGOs increase the amount of output (different services that society values) available to society beyond what might have been produced without subsidies (Weisbrod, 1988).

The Public Goods Theory: The public goods theory presents a different view of the rationale of the NGOs. The main theme of the public goods theory is that the NGOs exist because they have to satisfy the unsatisfied demand for public goods in society. The theory argues that the state tends to provide public goods only at the level that satisfies the median voters. Where demand exceeds this level or where heterogeneous demands exist, the NGOs step in to fill the gaps. But this theory doesn't

explain why the NGOs provide services like health care, education etc. without characteristics of public goods (Paul, 1991).

The Contract Failure Theory: The contract failure theory suggests that the NGOs arise where ordinary contractual mechanisms do not provide the public with adequate means to public procedures (Hansmann, 1987). The contract failure theory views the NGOs as a response to possible opportunistic behavior by both private and public service providers. The main argument of this theory is that, when contracts are difficult to define, people are likely to trust the NGOs more than commercial firms. When the public fails to monitor or evaluate certain outputs and services, they are likely to turn to organizations with no profit motive for producing and delivering the outputs and services. The values and goals that people perceive in the NGOs explain this public behavior (Paul, 1991).

The Consumer Control Theory: The consumer control theory explains the existence of a category of the NGOs in terms of the superiority of direct consumer or patron control when the government and the market are unable to ensure the desired performance (Ben-ner, 1986). It is argued that consumer control may help eliminate information asymmetry and the adverse consequences of monopoly for members.

The above theories provide alternative explanations of why the NGOs have emerged and survived in society and point to the conditions under which the institutional form is likely to perform better than the state and the market (Paul, 1991).

1.2 Features of Government and NGO Administration in Bangladesh

Like many other developing countries, public administration is a large institution in Bangladesh with a total staff of 1.2 million (GOB, 1991). Though the public sector exists as the largest area of operation, its functional coverage and delivery of services is still minimal. The popular image of management system and practice of public bureaucracy in Bangladesh is poor (Khan, 1990; UNDP, 1991). Empirical evidences indicate that, in general, the management behavior and attitude of public bureaucracy are 'merely reactive than proactive' and excessively formal, sluggish and corrupt (Aminuzzaman, 1996). Policy making process is also complicated and there are lots of 'undue hindrance' from different quarters of vested interest (Rahman, 1993). Even the official documents have noted that "the service delivery system in Bangladesh is significantly biased against the poor and the disadvantaged. One of the main reason of this biased service delivery system is the public

bureaucrats who are not motivated to go to the poor and the disadvantaged" (Fourth Five Year Plan, GOB, 1990). The local government bodies are also politically weak and financially dependent on central government. As s result, the role of local government in project planning, design, management and mobilization of resources at the local level remained negligible (Aminuzzaman, 1993). The emergence, growth and flourishing of the NGOs in Bangladesh can be explained through the consumer control theory which explains the existence of a category of the NGOs in terms of the patron control when the government and the market are unable to ensure the desired performance (Ben-ner, 1986).

The emergence and growth of the NGOs in Bangladesh is a function of the lack of response on the part of the government to meet the hopes and aspirations of the disadvantaged rural and urban poor (Aminuzzaman, 1993; Hasan, 1992). Based on available secondary documents, research works and present observation, the author presents in Table-1.1 a comparative picture of the features of the government and the NGOs in Bangladesh. It presents the nature and criteria of administrative practices of the Government of Bangladesh (GOB) and various NGOs working in Bangladesh. Conceptually the features of conventional public bureaucracy and that of the NGOs differ significantly. In fact, the differences in administrative practices between GOB and the NGOs make communication difficult between them.

Table-1.1: Characteristic Features of Government and NGO Administration

	Characteristics of Administrative Practices of GOB	Characteristics of Administrative Practices of NGOs
Size:	Big government/wide spatial and Functional coverage.	Small area of operation and specific target groups.
Scope:	Limited service and program for all the areas.	Services and programs for selected target groups.
Responsiveness:	Lack of interaction with the beneficiaries.	Regular and close interaction with the public.
Structure:	Rigid, hierarchic bureaucracy.	Institutionally flexible and horizontal structure and short line communication
Decision making Authority:	Centralized.	Community development and peoples participation.
Decision making approach:	Incremental.	Rational and participatory.
Service condition:	Poor salary and poor job conditions.	Better salary and challenging conditions.
Initiative:	Lack of initiative and motivation.	High initiative and motivation.
Training:	Minimal training.	Continuous training programs.
Support:	Internal resource mobilization as well as external assistance.	Large portion is from external assistance.
Accountability:	To general public.	Clientele and sponsors.

In Bangladesh, the spatial and functional coverage of the government is indeed very wide. Its programs cover the whole country and the scope of its service is wide, but question arises regarding the quality of its services. Because of large-scale programs, lack of interaction is perceived between government agencies and beneficiaries. On the other hand, the activities of the NGOs are limited with small areas of operation and their programs and services are limited to select target groups. As a result, the NGOs have very close and regular interaction with their beneficiaries.

The structure of GOB is rigid and hierarchic bureaucracy. Its decision-making authority is centralized and its decision making process is incremental. On the other hand, the NGOs in Bangladesh are institutionally flexible; their structures are horizontal and there exists short line of communication. The decision-making authorities of the NGOs are mostly decentralized and people's participation is encouraged here. The decision-making approaches of the NGOs are rational and participatory. Poor salaries, poor job conditions and lack of initiative and motivation are some common features within the GO. On the other hand, NGO officials enjoy better salary, challenging job conditions, high initiative and motivation. The GO staff have minimal training facilities whereas the NGO staff have sufficient training which help them to become more efficient. Where the GO depends on internal resource mobilization as well as external assistance, the NGOs largely depend on external assistance. The GO is accountable to general public but the NGOs are accountable to the clientele and the sponsors. Though the table presents the different features of GO and the NGOs, it is imperative to recognize that the roles and respective contributions of the GO and the NGO are complementary. In Bangladesh, the NGOs need support and encouragement from the GO to facilitate their operations and extend their positive contributions (World Bank, 1996).

The donor community which play a significant role in the public policy making process in Bangladesh, strongly advocated for the active involvement of the NGOs in development management (Sobhan and Bhattacharya, 1990). Different donors like the World Bank, USAID, DANIDA, NORAD, SIDA etc. are channeling substantially higher amount of resources for development in the country through the NGOs. In fact, some leading donors have made their support conditional in order to involve the NGOs. NGO support from bilateral and multilateral agencies in Bangladesh has steadily increased as a reflection of the perceived capacity and effectiveness of the NGOs in working with the poor (ADB, 1993). Structural Adjustment Program (SAP), the World Bank and the IMF-sponsored policy reform package, have strongly emphasized the activated role of the NGOs in the overall development management in Bangladesh (Aminuzzaman, 1993).

1.3 GOB's View Regarding NGOs

Report of the Task Force first acknowledged the NGO sector as 'a positive force in national development' (Task Force, 1990). And it advised the Government to consider and recognize the NGOs as a distinctive sector and "create a conducive and congenial policy environment ensuring an un-inhabited operation of the NGOs to enable them to contribute effectively to national development" With a view to utilizing the knowledge and experience of the NGOs at the grassroots level, the Task Force therefore recommended for involving the NGOs in formulating appropriate policies and developing programs both at the local and national level. It also recommended to involving the NGOs at the stage of planning, so that the needs of the poor are properly addressed and their participation is ensured.

According to the NGO Affairs Bureau (GOB, 1990), the GOB views the NGO activity as a useful contribution to the national development and welcomes it in those sectors "where government activities are not adequate". It further suggests that, well co-ordinate NGO activities could supplement and complement government's development programs quite meaningfully.

In the light of the past experience and overall development scenario of Bangladesh, the Fourth Five Year Plan (FFYP) thus recognized the importance of the contributions of different types of NGOs and opted to utilize their services in a more cost-effective and co-ordinate manner. The FFYP noted that all concerned ministries/agencies would have to restore their programs to integrate and incorporate the active services of the NGOs for development (GOB, 1990). The Fifth Five Year Plan (FFYP) confirms that there exists "inefficiency" in the GO delivery system to reach the poor and acknowledges that the NGOs can play a more creative role to overcome the gap (GOB, 1997).

Increased attention has been focused on collaborative ventures between large NGOs and GOB agencies as a promising institutional approach in recent years. This approach seeks to combine the exclusive experience of the NGOs in group formation, awareness raising, human resource development and income generating activities with large-scale capacity of GOB line agencies.

1.4 Potential Research Area

Though there are a huge number of case studies of individual NGOs, but similar theoretical and empirical works on the NGOs in developing countries is only beginning to emerge (Paul, 1991). There are a few studies on the NGO sector nationally. A number of studies focusing on the

potential role of the NGOs in development have also been undertaken by the international donors who are very much interested to involve the NGOs in the development process. They have undertaken a very few careful assessments of NGOs' collaboration with international donors.

The Non-Government Organization series (Farrington and Bebbington ed., 1993), which was the first major study of its kind, gave a comprehensive empirical insights into NGOs' work in agriculture with wider considerations of their relations with the state and their contribution to democratic pluralism. This overview volume on the NGOs synthesized the case study material in the three regional volumes on Africa, Asia and Latin America, where sixty specially commissioned case studies of farmer participatory approaches to agricultural innovation are presented. The World Bank undertook several studies on the activities of NGOs. These studies focused on the efficient role of the NGOs and also suggested the Governments of the developing countries to involve the NGOs in the process of national development. In Bangladesh the World Bank undertook a study to identify the common goals that strengthening relations between the government and the NGOs. This World Bank report identified a number of ways and means of moving closer to effective GO-NGO partnership in Bangladesh.The World Bank report suggested that GO-NGO collaboration is excellent sense in fulfilling the country's development goals, but it required good governance.

In the area of GO-NGO collaboration in Bangladesh, a research in human development initiatives was undertaken by the Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies. The main focus of the research was limited to the collaborative programs of human development. In this report, however, no attempt was made to analyze the viability of GO-NGO collaboration model in that particular area. There is no other study on GO-NGO collaboration model to analyze the viability of the existing models even in a particular field. Collaboration of NGOs with Governmental organization (GO) in Bangladesh is thus a potential field of research.

1.5 The research Problem

In the context of Bangladesh, some researchers have indicated that the relations between the state and the NGOs are contradictory and difficult (White, 1991). From the earliest days, the attitude of the GOB towards the NGOs has been rather ambivalent. Poor co-ordination between the NGOs and GOB limits the potential impact of the NGO interventions. The NGOs have to face obstacles to the smooth functioning of the organizations from local bureaucrats as well as local elite in Bangladesh as they think that the

NGOs have hampered their importance and also their interest (Hasan, 1993). Thus there is a general feeling of mutual mistrust among the members of the GOB and the NGO functionaries. There are lack of co-ordination between the NGOs and the GOB functionaries both at the local and national level resulting in duplication of work and wastage of resources and efforts.

But opportunities are growing for the NGOs throughout the developing world to work together with government and inter-governmental institutions in helping the people to improve the quality of their lives. Governments in developing countries are becoming more aware of what the NGOs can contribute to national development (World Bank, 1990). As a developing country, Bangladesh also follow the same trend. GO-NGO collaboration can achieve the developmental goals of this country. Because the institutional capacity of the government is weak and there is a gap in service delivery system especially at local level. On the other hand, some NGOs have higher level of management capabilities to organize and manage development programs at the grassroots levels.

In principle, GOB has time and again categorically mentioned the need and importance of the NGOs as partners in development. Nevertheless, there seem to be a noticeable ambiguity in the policies of the GOB on the role and scope of the involvement of the NGOs in Bangladesh. In effect, GOB has no specific policy on the roles and scope of the NGOs in different development activities. Though different GOB plans have indicated the possible use of the NGOs and encouraged collaborative ventures with them, yet these plans could not identify any specific packages of intervention strategy, because they have only vaguely expressed the potential in this respect. With a view to utilizing the potentials of the NGO sector, GOB has also introduced an institutional framework under the general supervision of the NGO Affairs Bureau.1 However, it is told from the side of NGO management and also from some observers that NGO Affairs Bureau is unable to put forward a clear guideline on the operations and involvement of the NGOs in the context of development in Bangladesh. Thus there seems to be a noticeable gap in terms of policy guidance to utilize the potentials of the NGO sector. As a result, the NGOs, to a great extent, are

---

[1] NGO Affairs Bureau (NGOAB): The mandate the coordinate NGO activities are assigned on behalf of the GOB to the NGO Affairs Bureau. NGOAB was established with a view to provide the NGOs one-stop service. It was created in 1990 under the Prime Minister's Secretariat. Since then the GOB has assigned NGOAB all responsibilities to coordinate NGOs under the 1978 Foreign Donations (Voluntary Activities) Regulation Ordinance and the 1982 Foreign Contribution (Regulation) Ordinance. The establishment of the NGOAB has produced significant improvement from the past. It enables the NGOs to obtain their registration clearance, approval and permission through a single agency of Government within a specified time frame.

working in isolation. There is confusion and suspicion about their activities which has given rise to many suspicious stories that are causing damage to their image (Karim. 1994).

Growth of closer understanding and greater confidence between the government and the NGO sector will be most helpful for making the NGOs' programs and objectives more effective. Actually, the scope for initiatives and innovative activities by the NGO community depends considerably on the nature of the relationship with the state. Equally, promotion of participatory process at the grassroots level by the NGOs can help to supplement governmental efforts (Adnan et. al., 1992). In fact, the NGOs intend to complement the governmental efforts to improve the conditions of the lives of the poor. The NGOs work towards the development of workable concepts and models through field level experiments which government can undertake at the national level. The NGOs expect necessary supplement and co-operation from the government in their endeavor (Huda, 1987). In other words. it can be said that a healthy GO-NGO collaboration is very much essential in the present socio-economic-political context of Bangladesh (Islam and Hussain, 1993).

Based on general observation, available research reports, media reports, some general issues and problems that affect the role and functions of the NGOs in Bangladesh can be identified. From the findings of different studies and from the above discussion, the following research problems are identified.

Lack of appropriate government policy to utilize the NGO sector: GOB is serious and committed to GO-NGO collaboration. Time and again, the government of Bangladesh mentions the need for utilizing the expertise of the NGO sector for the purpose of development. GOB and different international organizations at different times have made sporadic preferences of GO-NGO collaboration in Bangladesh, but none of them have come up with concrete proposals or have identified any specific strategy or any area of collaboration. No clear-cut and appropriate government policy is prepared in this respect. As a result, the NGOs have to work in isolation. Thus noticeable ambiguity is found in the policies of GOB regarding the involvement of the NGOs in the process of development.

Lack of co-ordination between the NGO and GOB: Because of lack of proper governmental policy, the NGOs in Bangladesh work in isolation, which also create suspicious stories about them. Only some of the large and established NGOs have some collaborative programs with the GOB.

Wastage of resource and efforts: As there is a lack of proper interaction between the GOB and the NGOs, they undertake the same

programs, which ultimately result in duplication of work and wastage of resources and efforts.

Mutual mistrust between the NGO and GOB staff: In Bangladesh, the NGOs have to face resistance from local government staff as well as the local power elite (Aminuzzaman, 1993). These groups treat the NGOs as their enemies and think that the activities of the NGOs will hamper their personal as well as group interest. On the other hand, the staffs of the NGOs have a hostile attitude towards them. As a result, there remains a hostile and mutual mistrust between the NGO and GOB staff.

1.6 Objectives

There are several objectives to undertake the research. The first objective is to have an overview of the GOB policies regarding the role of NGOs in the overall development management in Bangladesh. Another major objective is to examine the present modalities of collaborative programs between GOB and NGOs in health and family planning sectors and examine their strengths and weaknesses as collaborative models. The most significant objective of the research is to examine whether such collaborative models are viable for development management in Bangladesh, particularly at the local level.

1.7 Methodology

In this study a combination of several research methods were used, namely, case- study; survey; observation and interview of selected functionaries from both NGOs and GOB. Two NGOs were selected for case studies. The criterias for selection of the NGOs were: established and experienced in their respective area of operation; wide geographic and diversified functional coverage and large size of annual budget. In selecting the NGOs this study followed purposive sampling technique. Within the set criteria one NGO was selected from among the national NGOs while another NGO was selected from among the international NGOs. Both the NGOs had direct collaborative programs with GOB in health and family planning sectors. The selected NGOs were BRAC- a national NGO and CARE- an international NGO.

In order to collect basic information from different clientele groups, two sets of semi-structured questionnaire were developed. And these questionnaires were administered either through two trained Research Assistants or by the author herself. With a view to collecting relevant information about the selected NGOs, some geographic areas were identified. Two thanas were identified from two of the administrative divisions namely,

Dhaka and Sylhet. Government officials as well as NGO officials of both at policy-making and field level were selected as respondents.

In addition to these methods, necessary data were collected from secondary sources such as, research reports, books, journals, thesis, relevant publications of the GOB, reports of the donor agencies and NGOs, including those of the sampled NGOs. Besides, in order to collect desired information, informal and unstructured discussion sessions were held with knowledgeable people other than the groups mentioned above. In addition, direct observation method was also employed as another major source of information gathering.

Chapter 2
Basic Concepts and Approaches

2.1 Introduction

Presentation of the relevant concepts, which have been used in different discussions and analyses of this book is the main purpose of this chapter. It has highlighted on the core concepts of the study, such as, development, development administration, development management, institution, institution building, voluntarism and different approaches of development management. Besides, definition, typology and institutional strategies of NGO are also presented here. Finally, GO-NGO relationship is also highlighted here as a prime subject.

2.2 Development: A Conceptual Overview

Development is the most widely used term of the recent world. It is one of the main issues of the present time that has a universal appeal. Attaining development has become a prime objective of all the developing countries. As a result, it has become a principal highlighted area in the field of public administration.

The concept 'development' has numerous appeals. It can be defined as a multidimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes and national institutions as well as acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and the eradication of absolute poverty (Todaro, 1990).

Brandt commission (1980) defined development as a process of change, which promotes the quality of human life. It is a transition from unsatisfactory conditions of life towards a better and satisfactory condition of life that involves a complex socio-economic, political and cultural transformation. It is universally perceived to be a beneficial process, which "carries with it not only the idea of economic betterment, but also of greater human dignity, justice and equity"(Brandt Commission, 1980).

Like other concepts of social science, the concept of development has been subjected to constant change and refinement. First of all, development was often equated with modernization, the process that took place in the

western world. Then the achievement of "growth with equity" became the basic element of development (Chenery et.al., 1974). Afterwards, development was viewed as a multidimensional concept involving different aspects of human existence. And most recently, development has come to be regarded as a process that seeks to increase the income of the poor through sustainable and productive activities and emphasizes on self-reliance, empowerment, participation and human development (Berger and Meuhaus, 1984).

The approaches of development have also changed a lot over the time. The following table presents different development models that have emerged at different times. It also focuses on their approaches and conceptual basis.

Table 2.1: Development Models: Approaches and Conceptual Basis.

Period	Approach	Conceptual Basis
In the early 1950s (Development was first highlighted with prime importance all over the world.)	Goods-oriented view of development which followed the "trickle-down" approach (Ingham, 1993).	Development was often equated with modernization, a process of change towards those types of economic, socio-cultural and political systems developed in Western Europe and the North America. Per capita GNP was the main indicator of development. The prime emphasis of this approach was maximum production for maximizing returns on investment. During this period, development was mainly viewed as a process of wealth creation (Siddique, 1994).
In the 1970s	Basic needs approach (ILO, 1976).	GNP was abandoned as the sole determinant in measuring development. The fulfillment of basic needs and the achievement of "growth with equity" became the basic elements of development.
In the 1980s	Humanistic approach (Harrison,1988, Hulme and Turner,1990)	Development came to be regarded as a multi-dimensional concept involving different aspects of human existence. Development was viewed to be allied to three specific goals: 1) guaranteeing the provision of basic needs; 2) the creation of employment opportunities; 3) reduction of inequality in the society (Harrison, 1988; Hulme and Turner, 1990).
In the 1990s	People-centered development approach (Benger and Meuhans, 1984).	Development has experienced further neo-conceptualization. Currently development is viewed to be a process that seeks to increase the income of the poor through sustainable and productive activities and emphasis on more qualitative aspects as self-reliance, empowerment, participation and human development. Besides, new priorities on the development agenda of the 1990s include the environment, improving the conditions of women and promoting sustainability.

The above table presents different development models, which emerged at different decades. The core elements of the term development have changed

gradually with the introduction of different models. Development was equated with modernization in the 1950s. In the 1970s, the fulfillment of basic needs and the achievement of growth with equity became the core elements of development. In the 1980s development has been considered as a multi-dimensional concept involving different aspects of human existence. In the 1990s, development has viewed to be a process that seeks to increase the income of the people through sustainable and productive activities. Recently, the core elements of the term development include empowerment, human development and people's participation. Thus, it can be concluded that development is a flexible term, which has been changing with time and context.

2.3 Development Administration

During the early 1960s, development administration emerged as a dimension of public administration. Since then it has been playing a key role in the realm of development. Development administration is concerned mainly with the development role of the government or administrative set-up. In other words, development administration is concerned inseparably with the governmental administration. Most countries have started planning for socio-economic development to raise the standard of living of their people. The poorer countries take efforts to attain self-sustaining economic growth in the shortest possible time. For this purpose these countries attempt to improve their education, health facilities, infrastructure, communication system, and to achieve stable economy as well as to have an efficient administrative set-up. Such development-oriented administration is called development administration (Shakrullah, 1993). The aim of development administration is social progress. It depends on effectiveness of bureaucracy and it emphasizes extended role of government. Its functional parameter is efficiency.

In the first five year plan the Government of the then Pakistan defined development administration as "that aspect of public administration in which the focus of attention is on organizing and administering public agencies in such a way to stimulate and facilitate defined programs of social and economic progress" (GOP, 1956).

Development administration is also defined as the expanded and emphasized role of government particularly as it affects economic growth. Operations of public administrators are significantly different in development administration (Swerdlow, 1963). Development administration is also defined as "the management of change" (Meadow, 1963).

Different definitions of development administration highlighted its core characteristics. It is concerned with the developmental role of government and its main objective is to gain socio-economic development of the country. It is inseparable with public administration. Development administration is essentially the public administration system with primary focus of social change. Its goal is to enhance the pace of social and economic changes. It is a pragmatic and covers both conventional and unconventional areas of interventions.

2.4 Development Management and Its Approaches

Development management is also a very widely used term in the recent development literature. It has a very close relation with development administration. There exist very keen differences between development administration and development management. With a view to highlighting the differences, development management should be defined separately.

In order to attain the developmental goals, the developing countries face complex problems that require pragmatic solutions. Development management deals with identification of those problems, finding out effective strategies to address those problems and implementation of those strategies in the form of programs or projects. Development management is also defined as that type of management that fits the current needs of development organization or developing nations (Dichter, 1989). Brinkerhoff and Ingle defined it as "that branch of public administration dealing with the promotion of socio-economic process in the developing world" (Brinkerhoff, 1986).

Development management emphasizes on more rationality and more systematic procedure. It is cost-conscious, result-oriented and culturally sensitive. It encourages more participation of the concerned people. It emphasizes on less bureaucratic and less technocratic process. On the other hand, it is shortsighted and sometimes less in evidence (Montgomery, 1979).

Where 'development administration' is concerned mainly with the developmental role of the government or administrative set up, 'development management' is concerned mainly with development programs and projects, although the main goal of both of them is to attain socio-economic development. Development management encourages the developmental role of private and voluntary sectors. It is more rational, cost-conscious, more systematic than development administration and culturally more sensitive. It also encourages more participation and empowerment of the concerned

people. As development administration is concerned with government, it is more bureaucratic than development management.

Approaches of Development Management: There exist three different approaches in the field of development management. Among them two approaches are quite opposite to each other; they are the 'blueprint' 'approach' and the 'learning process approach'. The most recent and third approach is the 'structured flexibility' approach, which tends to combine the elements of both the above approaches. The basic elements of the said three approaches are summarized below highlighting the differences among them.

The blueprint approach: As its name implies, it suggests management by a preconceived, ordered plan. This approach is borrowed from the world of engineering which defines a problem, cites objectives, chooses solutions, puts together resources, implements the plan and lastly evaluates the results. In other words, this approach consists of a set of prescribed steps beginning with problem specification and concluding with post-project evaluation. The major focus of this approach is on project preparation prior to implementation. It is hierarchical in structure and follows a 'top-down' strategy. According to this approach, management should follow the blueprint faithfully and rigidly so as to reach the planned targets and achieve the objectives using the resources allocated within the prescribed time frame. The gaps between what is planned and what is actually produced require correction. This approach thus, failing to produce outputs as planned, begins a vicious cycle of tighter controls, followed by more pressure for results that may lead to greater degrees of failure (Leonard, 1987). This approach is generally followed and preferred by the governments of the developing countries.

The learning process approach: This approach is also well known as "People-centered management approach" which has been developed in response to the demonstrated weakness of the blueprint approach (Sweet and Weisel, 1979). This approach has its origin in the organized and industrial west and it attempts to involve people more closely in the operations and goals of the workplace. In its industrial origin, it not only presupposed that the workplace should be well-organized but what is also needed is a sharpening of interpersonal skills that make people work better and even feel better. The key features of the approach are flexibility and incremental adaptation, continuous information gathering at the micro

level, experimentation and iterative learning. This approach starts from the assumption that in the pre-implementation stage it is not possible to know enough about what will be successful and to specify all details in advance. Each design represents an experimental solution to be tested and redesigned based on accumulated learning in the face of uncertainty and complexity. Projects and programs consist of a set of resources and strategies for mobilizing people to identify problems, develop tentative solutions, test and refine them and thus apply the participatory learning process to other problems. Goals, targets and timeframes emerge as a result of the interplay between local people and resource providers and are constantly revised as learning and adaptation progress (Korten, 1980; Korten and Klauss, 1984).

The structured flexibility approach: The structured flexibility approach is, in fact, a blend of the above two approaches. The rigid and preplanned blueprint model cannot be properly adapted to the complex and uncertain nature of development. On the other hand, the flexible and experimental process approach is unable to satisfy the international donors as well as the governments of developing countries as it fails to specify objectives, targets, timetables and the resource needs. As accountability requires advance determination of results to be produced and controls during implementation, the process approach offers few incentives to apply it, despite the positive results emerging from situations where it has been tried. In addition, the empowerment aspects of the approach tend to raise fears among developing country decision-makers regarding the balance of political power (Brinkerhoff, 1986). In this situation it is a felt need of the recent time to develop a third and middle approach which will help development management to become more effective on a large scale. Several attempts were made to develop a third course of action taking the positive aspects of the two other approaches. And the emergence of the structured flexibility approach was the outcome of those attempts. This approach has combined the positive elements of both blueprint and learning process approach in order to meet the demands of developmental reality. The resulting blend is an approach that avoids the dysfunctional rigidities of blueprint approach and systematizes the fluidity's of the process approach's capacity building aims (Brinkerhoff and Lugle, 1986). This blend also provides the basis for the programmatic and financial accountability that is needed to attract

resources from international donors and to ensure developing country bureaucracies. And at the same time, this approach facilitates an adaptive management stance that can take into account uncertain and changing task environment. This approach derives from what Millar calls a design science perspective in which social science serves to improve management performance (Millar, 1994).

Structured flexibility approach incorporates the blueprint model's orientation towards analysis, planning and specificity. But it rejects the use of blueprint analytical tools as means that supports detailed pre-implementation planning. Rather these tools are used to clarify the uncertainty present in the project setting and to develop initial responses that are modified over the life of the project through interactive application of the tools. This approach draws upon basic precepts of the process approach both in terms of implementation and aim. It adopts a conscious orientation towards the participation of key actors and give attention to their values.

Structured flexibility fuses the long-term goals with short-term service/product delivery targets. This orientation helps to resolve the problem with donor accountability requirements by mixing intermediate targets that can be measured; thus satisfying the 'deliverables' mentality of the funding organizations.

The following table shows a comparison among the blueprint approach, learning process approach and structured flexibility approach.

Table 2.2: Comparison among the approaches of development management

Features	Different Approaches of Development Management		
	Blueprint	Learning process	Structured flexibility
Operating premise	Optimal solution can be identified as a priority by planners. Top-down.	Optimal solution can only be identified by beneficiaries. during planning and implementation. Bottom-up.	Satisfactory solution can be postulated during planning and discovered during implementation by teams of planners and beneficiaries. Top-down and bottom-up.
Goals	Effective and efficient attainment of pre-stated goals and targets solving discrete problems of interest.	Emphasis on more creative capacity to solve problems as they occur.	Combination of having more and being more; developing capacity to solve other problems by solving an immediate problem.
Perception of environment	Uncertainty is statistically describable; Major events predictable, component can be isolated; closed systems. Emphasis on the short term.	High levels of complexity and uncertainty; analytical tests inappropriate. Open systems. Emphasis on the long term.	Environment contains various types of uncertainty requiring different analyses during design and implementation. Various levels of predictability; multiple overlapping systems. Emphasis on both short and long term; step by step.
Problem solving orientation	Curative; problems can be detected by comparing actual and planned accomplishments; solutions are derived analytically.	Preventive; empowered beneficiaries can prevent problems via participation in design and implementation.	Preventive and curative; some problems can be avoided and others detected/resolved; joint use of analytical tools and human process.
Dominant view:human behavior.	Mechanistic/economic. People will respond as rational. Profit should be maximum.	Social/psychological values and informal arrangements affect participation and commitment.	Social/psychological plus politico-bureaucratic. People and organizations are affected by formal/informal structures and processes.
Institutional bias	Pro-bureaucracy; technicians and scientists know best.	Pro-people; communities and beneficiaries know best.	Pro-synergy; all participants have distinctive competencies.
Leadership	Formal leadership based on project organizational structure as preplanned. Authority follows hierarchy.	Informal leadership evolves during design and implementation; Locally based authority.	Balance of formal and informal; situational authorities; leaders emerge depending on particular task requirements.
Management tools	"Hard" tools; budgets, schedules, networks developed and used to control.	"Soft" tools; social and group facilitation techniques; participation and process consultation.	Combined use of analytic tools and team process; techniques situationally adapted.
Methods of learning	Audits formal evaluations, quasi-experimental designs.	Process observation value clarification and case studies.	Combinations of qualitative and quantitative research methods; case comparisons.

Source: Brinkerhoff, 1986; pp.491-492.

The above table focuses on different characteristics of the blueprint approach, learning process approach and structured-flexible approach of development management and shows the differences among these approaches. The blueprint approach is pre-planned, rigid, formal and closed. On the other hand, the learning-process approach is very much flexible, informal and open. Structured-flexible approach is the combination of the above mentioned approaches.

In the preceding chapter the features of Government administration and NGO administration are highlighted. Analyzing the features from the viewpoint of approaches of development management it can be said that the government administration of Bangladesh follows mainly the blueprint approach, because its structure is rigid, hierarchic and bureaucratic; its decision making authority is centralized and it implements projects/programs in a pre-planned manner. The administration is not so open to general people. On the other hand, the features of NGO administration indicate that it mainly follows the learning process approach, because NGO administration maintains a close and regular informal interaction with common people and its structure is institutionally flexible. NGO administration encourages community development and people's participation. Through GO-NGO collaboration, the most suitable structured-flexible approach of development management can be followed in Bangladesh. Because GO-NGO collaboration can ensure the utilization of the blended and suitable features of both the approaches which is the main thrust of the structured-flexible approach of development management. This approach of development management is widely used in recent time.

2.5 Institution Building: Defination and Features

Institution and instutition building are two core concepts used in this book. Sometimes the term 'institution' is used as a synonym for organization. This is acceptable in this sense that we should recognize that an institution includes more than formal structure and process. Institution may be regarded as regulative principles, which organize most of the activities of individuals in a system or society into some definite organizational patterns.

The interest in institution building is undoubtedly a reflection of the prevailing concrete situation, which has become part and parcel of organizational theory and practice. The quest for improved understanding of what an institution is and what its process entails for developing countries had acquired increased importance and momentum locally,

regionally and internationally. Because development encompasses the idea of institutional development particularly in many developing countries where the needs are extensive and the resources to satisfy them are scarce and limited (UNDTCD, 1982).

With a view to having a clear idea about 'institution building', focus should first be made on what an institution is. An institution is more than an organization that depicts complicated cultural patterns and an extensive organized working system. An institution attracts support that induce changes which are associated with new technologies both physical and social and it also attracts legitimacy from its environment so as to be able to perform its function better. An institution is much more than a formal arrangements for doing something. It is a combination of arrangements or patterns and norms or standards from which these patterns get their forms, meaning and acceptability. These norms or standards are justified by an underlying regulative principle or set of principles. At a successful level of effectiveness, an institution is a very powerful arrangement, because its activities are justified and ordered by norms linked to basic principles of the social system (UNDTCD, 1982).

An effective institution always seems to demand an open social system that has a boundary that distinguishes it from other similar systems. It has its goals and purposes; its inter-dependent subsystems with their own set of goals and tasks; its resources and constraints. It seeks to mobilize and harmonize the resources to press them into desirable action and built-in mechanism to monitor the consequences with a view to correcting deviations.

An institution as an open social system has a continuous transactional relationship with the changing environment. It has to change and adapt itself or else suffer atrophy, decay, become rigid and obsolete. An institution should be able to learn from the experiences and respond to the challenges of its strengths and weaknesses. It is the degree of responsiveness of the institution to its clientele's needs and its adherence to the clientele's values that determine the degree of the institution's legitimacy.

Institution and institution building are two inseparable terms. Institution building is tacitly accepted as a major effort for promoting consistent economic, social and political progress. It involves the introduction and establishment of organizations, which induce changes in patterns of action and belief within a society. The essential dynamics of institution building is the process of moving from introduction to establishment, from adapting to adopting. It begins with efforts to create the necessary mechanisms for effective planning and synthesizing information (UNDTCD, 1982).

Institution building is not a type of activity, it is a possible consequence or effect of deliberate action. Institution building is, in fact, an aspect of certain kinds of development efforts. In practice, it must be treated as one of the dimensions of an intervention. Institution builders always aim to create or improve an action system.

The purposes of institution building are to introduce, foster and guide more efficient social changes and new patterns of individual and group relations. Therefore, the functions of institution building are to make things happen. Institution builders must choose deliberate strategies of action and tactics to implement them as they learn from experience. They must be prepared to revise their strategies and even their goals in order to cope with unexpected problems or take advantages of fresh opportunities. The main function of institution building remains the elaboration of specific strategies of action and tactics, which would be practically proved very useful. The two main tasks of institution building are: to build viable organizations and to manage linkages with other organizations in their administrative environment on which they must depend for resources and support. The hub of the task of building institution is to establish a combination of behaviors, norms and regulative principles that will serve developmental aims. Institution building is indirect because it involves changing or creating values as well as behaviors. Usually the institution-building efforts seek to establish new functions and new ways of performing established functions. An institution building process involves both system design and system maintenance properties. Institution building efforts are combinations of different kinds of process. The aim is always to strike down, undermine or establish new patterns, which will achieve the ability to maintain themselves through their norms and linkage to effective regulative principles.

2.6 Features of institution building

The above discussion reflects some basic and important features of institution building which help recognize the concept of institution building (UNDTCD, 1982).

These features are summarized as follows: First of all, the most important feature is that, it is a possible consequences or effect of deliberate action which involves the introduction and establishment of organizations that induce changes in the patterns of action and belief within a society. The second important feature of institution building is the elaboration of specific strategies of action and tactics to cope with the changing situation. Thirdly, institution building is indirect as it involves

change or creates values as well as behaviors. Fourthly, it always seeks to establish new functions and new ways of performing established function. The fifth feature is that it needs very strong and persistent political support to be successful. Lastly, it involves a highly sensitive relationship of trust and confidence between the participant and the administrative system, which ensures adaptation of the alternative strategies of development.

In a society, there are various types of organizations and institutions. These organizations and institutions constitute various sectors. From the developmental perspective there exist three sectors in the recent world, namely: i) the Governmental or public sector; ii) the commercial or private sector; iii) the voluntary or NGO sector;

With a view to recognizing the significant role of the NGO sector on the international developmental scene, the concept of voluntarism; the definition, types, typology and the strategies of the NGO sector should be highlighted. The following section will focus on these points.

2.7 Voluntarism

Non-governmental organizations believe in the Schumacherian principle of development which states that "people are the primary and ultimate source of any wealth whatsoever" (Schumacher, 1973). The major development programs of the NGOs are, therefore, undertaken for the people. These organizations provide opportunities to people in order to organize themselves for self-defense, self-help, self-reliance and development (Hasan, 1993).

The recent years have witnessed the emergence of the NGOs as a significantly visible force on the international development scene. These organizations command growing attention as a possible alternative to government organizations in addressing the needs of the people (Brown and Korten, 1991). Thus, opportunities are growing for the NGOs to work together with government organizations to help the poor. Governments in developing countries are also becoming more aware of the NGOs contributions towards national development.

2.8 Definition and Typology of NGO

In the recent development literature, the term "NGO" is much used, abused and perhaps, little understood (Sultan, 1993). The diversity of the NGOs strains any simple definition. In the most simple sense the term 'NGO' refers to "any voluntary non-profit agency involved in the field of

development cooperation or in education and policy advocacy activities" (Brodhead, 1987). The NGOs are also defined as organizations that are "established and governed by a group of private citizens for a stated philanthropic purpose and supported by voluntary individual contribution" (OECD, 1988). Others define NGOs as institutions outside the public and private sectors whose goals are primarily value-driven (humanitarian or cooperative) rather than profit-driven (World Bank, 1990; Bhatnugear, 1991).

The term 'NGO' also includes all those organizations which are involved in various development activities with the objective of alleviating poverty of the rural and urban poor (Task Force Report, 1990; Islam and Hussain, 1993).

In the Asian Institution of Technology, the NGO workshop highlighted on various definitions of NGO. Definitions that were presented in that workshop are presented in the following box.

* It is an organization of private individuals who believe in certain basic social principles, and structure their activities to bring about development to the communities that they are serving.
* An organization or group of people working independent of any external control with specific objectives and aims to fulfill tasks that are oriented to bring about desirable change in a given community, area or situation.
* An independent, democratic organization working for the empowerment of economically and/or socially marginalized groups.
* An organization not affiliated to political parties, generally engaged in working for the development and welfare of the community.
* An organization committed to address the root causes of the problems and trying to improve the quality of life of the poor, the oppressed and the marginalized in the urban and rural areas.
* Organizations established by and for the community without or with little intervention from the government; they are not only a charity organization but work for socio-economic and cultural development.
* A non-profit, voluntary, service-oriented/development-oriented organization for the benefit of the poor.
* An organization that is flexible and democratic in its organization and attempts to serve the people without profit for itself.

Typology of NGOs

Structurally there are different types of NGOs (Table 2.3) which can be differentiated on the basis of certain factors, such as, size, class, life span, location, status of personnel and characteristics of the beneficiaries. There are NGOs organized only by and for women. Some NGOs might be 'enduring' providing significant services on a regular basis and playing a

vital role in ensuring community participation while some other NGOs may be 'ad-hoc' functioning to achieve only a particular goal. Although most of the NGOs in the developing world are formed in the rural areas, a large number are also found in the urban areas.

A large number of NGOs are interested in religious, cultural, and welfare activities with a very narrow focus. Human resource development including education, skill development training, and health and family planning have been very popular areas of concern for these organizations. Recently, environment and conservation of nature have become areas of interest for a good number of NGOs all over the world.

Classification on the basis of orientation: Charity oriented NGOs: The activities of these NGOs are based on the philosophy of charity. They follow a top-down paternalistic effort with little participation of the beneficiaries. Their activities are directed towards meeting the needs of the poor which includes distribution of food, clothing, medicine, provision of housing, transport, educational facilities etc. Such NGOs also undertake relief activities during natural or man-made disasters.

Development service oriented NGOs: The activities of these NGOs include provisions of health care, family planning or education services. These programs are designed by the NGOs and the people are encouraged by them to participate in the implementation and in receiving the services.

Participatory NGOs: These NGOs are characterized by self-help projects where local people are involved particularly in the implementation of a project by contributing cash, tools, land, materials, labor etc. In the classical community development project, participation begins with the need identification and continues into the planning and implementation stages.

Empowerment oriented NGOs: In order to empower the disadvantaged, the aim of these NGOs is to help them by developing a clearer understanding of the social, political and economic factors affecting their lives. These NGOs work to strengthen the awareness of the target group and their potential to control their lives. Sometimes these groups spontaneously identify a problem or an issue whereas in other instances the NGO workers play a facilitating role in this respect. In the process of empowerment these NGOs maximize the involvement of the target group.

Classification on the basis of spatial coverage and funds: On the basis of spatial coverage and sources of funds: the NGOs are categorized as follows:

Local NGOs: These NGOs operate in only a few villages in a Thana or a union receiving funds from local/national/international sources.

National NGOs: The NGOs operating in four or more geographical locations in the country are treated as national NGOs. These NGOs receive funds mostly from the foreign donors.

International NGOs: These NGOs operate in several geographical locations having their headquarters outside the country and operate mostly by expertise.

Mixed NGOs: voluntary organizations founded and organized locally but receiving money from foreign governments and/or organizations.

Classification on the basis of role

A further classification of the NGOs is made on the basis of their role and functions.

Relief and welfare NGOs: These NGOs are working to provide relief support towards the helpless people.

Service NGOs: These NGOs operate their activities to deliver services to the target groups.

Funding NGOs: These NGOs operate as conduits of foreign donors engaged in making grants to NGOs. They help the local NGOs to get foreign assistance.

Networking/ coordinating NGOs: These NGOs work to facilitate mutual sharing of learning and experiences. They also promote mutual support and cooperation among the NGO community.

Development NGOs: These NGOs operate to mobilize the poor through education and conscious raising to develop their own organizations.

Consulting NGOs: These NGOs provide consulting services to the government, donor agencies and other actors in the field of development. Although some fees are charged for their services, these NGOs are non-profit organizations usually concerning issues related to the social and economical development.

Table-2.3: Typology of NGOs

Classification	Basis	Forms
Structural	Size	
	Class and Character of The members	Grassroots, Intermediate Empire-Building
	Gender, Ethnic, Religious Linguistic	
	Life span, Enduring, Ad-hoc	Institutionalized Non-Institutional
	Location, Urban Rural	Local, Regional, National
	Status of Personnel, Paid-staff, Volunteer, Beneficiary Membership, Service	Instrumental, Expressive, Social Service
Functional	Functions	Specific Multi functional
	Socio-Economic, Educational	Membership Instrumental
	Health and Family Planning	Support Services, Production
	Environmental	Oriented, Welfare Oriented
	Programming (1st generation)	Relief and Welfare, Self-
	Strategy 2nd generation	reliance, Sustainable system
	3rd generation	
Support	Method of Formation, Allied with state, Purely voluntary, Source of Resources, Legal Status Formal (Legally registered), Informal	Government sponsored, Non-Government Sponsored Foreign Mixed, Indigenous

Source: Hasan, et. al., 1992: p-199.

2.9 Institutional Strategies

To attain development, NGOs have developed several institutional programming strategies all over the world. These strategies have been developed in the light of the experiences of the past activities of NGOs that have been rendered to the poor in different situation. And all the emerged in four generations and are categorized into the following fo major programming strategies (Korten, 1987; 1988; 1990).

Generation One: Relief and Welfare

Under the first generation strategy the NGOs deliver services to meet the immediate deficiencies of the beneficiaries, such as, need for food, health care or shelter. The assisting NGOs develop direct relationship with the individual or the families. The benefits delivered depend entirely on the availability of funds, staff and administrative capability of the NGO. In the first generation strategy the NGO is the doer, while the beneficiary is passive. The management capability required to work under this strategy is primarily a capacity in logistics management.

Generation Two: Small-scale, Self-reliant Local Development: The main thrust of the second-generation strategy is to develop the capacity of

the target group in order to meet their own needs through self-reliant local action. Because of their attention to sustainability, true second-generation strategy is developmental in concept and is referred to as community development strategy. It emphasizes on the development of local self-reliance to make sure that the benefits will sustain over time through community self-help beyond the period of NGO assistance. This strategy is sometimes described as an attempt to 'empower' the village people. This feature distinguishes the 'first' from 'second' strategy.

The second-generation strategy focuses on groups, usually a village or some sub-groups within it, such as women or land-less agricultural workers. The work revolves around a partnership between the NGO and the community. The implementation of the second-generation strategy calls on the NGO to be more a 'mobilizer' than an actual 'doer'.

Generation Three: Sustainable System Development: The third generation strategy looks beyond the individual community and seeks changes in specific policies and institutions at local, national and global level. The decision to pursue a third generation strategy often grew out of frustration with the limitations of the second generation strategies based on a growing realization that i) the benefits generated by its village interventions depend on a continued NGO presence and the availability of donor subsidies, and ii) acting on its own, the NGO can never hope to benefit more than a few favored localities.

The third generation strategy may involve the NGOs in working with the major agencies to help them reorient their policies and work modes in ways that strengthen local control over resources. The strategy may also involve the creation of some new institutions of significant size to provide essential local services on a sustained, self-financing basis.

The third generation strategy focuses on creating a policy and institutional setting that facilitates rather than constrains. The more an NGO embraces third generation program strategy, the more it finds itself working in a catalytic, foundation like role, rather as an operational service provider. It will need to develop in-depth knowledge of the system and also need to develop relations with the system's key players and the necessary technical competence to establish its credibility with them.

Generation Four: People's Movement: The third generation strategy seeks changes in specific policies and institutions. The achievement of sustainable development depends on accomplishing such changes almost in every sector in every nation. It is an essential, but clumsy process that must be replicated hundreds of thousands, even millions of times to achieve the needed transformation of the institutions of global society.

The critical deficiency of the third generation strategy parallels at the macro-level, the deficiency that the second-generation strategy displays at a more micro-level. The second generation strategy's critical flaw is that it requires countless replications in millions of communities, all within a basically hostile political and institutional context. It is much the same with third generation strategy, only at a more micro-level.

With a view to addressing the problems of the third generation strategy and to develop interdependent systems, the whole NGO community attempts to promote an alternative development paradigm effectively. This alternative development paradigm is the central concern of the fourth generation development strategy. There is a need to energize decentralized action towards a people centered development vision on a much broader scale. This is the current challenge for the NGOs that are committed to achieve people-centered development on a global scale. They must become facilitators of people's development movement. The job of the fourth generation NGO is to coalesce and energize self-managing networks over which it has no control.

The following table presents different strategies of the NGOs.

Table 2.4 Strategies of Development-oriented NGOs: Fourth Generations

	First Generation: Relief & Welfare	Second Generation: Community Development	Third Generation: Sustainable Systems Development	Fourth Generation: People's Movement
Problem Definition	Shortage	Local Inertia	Institutional and Policy Constrains	Inadequate Mobilizing Vision
Time Frame	Immediate	Project Life	Ten to Twenty Years	Indefinite Future
Scope	Individual or Family	Neighborhood or Village	Region or Nation	National or Global
Chief Actors	NGO	NGO plus Community	All Relevant Public and Private Institution	Loosely Defined Networks of People & Organizations
NGO Role	Doer	Mobilizer	Catalyst	Activist/Educator
Management Orientation	Logistic Management	Project Management	Strategic Management	Self-Management Network
Development Education	Starving Children	Community self-help	Constraining Policies &Institutions	Spaceship Earth

Source: Korten, 1990.

The above table highlights the characteristics of the fourth generation NGO strategies. From this point of view, we can classify the NGOs of Bangladesh into two categories: second generation NGOs and third generation NGOs. Most NGOs in Bangladesh are classified as second generation NGOs, as their problem is local inertia. These NGOs work as mobilizer; their scope is limited within neighborhood. Both these NGOs and community are the chief actors. Community self-help is their development education. Their management orientation is project management. Their time frame is limited only within the project period. There are some established NGOs in Bangladesh, which can be classified as third generation NGOs. These NGOs have to face institutional and policy constraints and their time frame is limited to ten to twenty years. These NGOs work as catalyst and their management orientation is strategic management. All relevant public and private organizations are the chief actors. Their development education is facilitating policies and institutions.

2.10 Conclusion

From the viewpoint of the core concepts of the study, the NGOs are identified as the third sector along with the public and private sectors. Different categories of NGOs are developed on the basis of orientation, ideology and approaches. The NGOs are following four major programming strategies to undertake their activities throughout the world. However, in the developmental process of a country, these three sectors play significant role. But at the same time the mutual relationship among the three sectors is a key determinant in the developmental process. The recent global developmental perspective focus on the fact that the public and the NGO sector especially play the most significant role in the process of development as the main target of both the sectors is to gain development for the public. At the same time their mutual relationship become the principal determinant that determine what role would be played by them in a particular country. In the context of developing countries, major donor agencies like the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank encourage GO-NGO co-operation as well as collaboration. Because GO-NGO collaboration is treated as a necessity in the present global perspective.

Chapter 3
Development Management in Bangladesh: Structure and Process

3.1 Introduction

The present chapter focuses mainly on the structure and process of development management in Bangladesh. The reasons for poor performance of development management of public sector and other alternative institutional frameworks are also highlighted. In the recent development literature, development management is a widely used term. With a view to attaining development goals, developing countries are facing complex problems that require appropriate solutions. Development management deals with the solutions of the problems in the form of either programs or projects.

Development management, that involves the process of decision-making and strategies, fits the needs of the developing nations (Hewitt, 1994). It leads to policy analysis that brings integration between micro and macro levels and integrates the public sector with the private sector. And it moves from closed to open systems, from planning to strategy and from organization to network. Development management is concerned mainly with development programs and projects; it encourages the development role of private and voluntary sectors. As a management process, it is rational, cost-conscious, result-oriented and systematic. It encourages participation and empowerment of the concerned people.

3.2 Project Management: Concept

Considering the prospects and demands of the society the importance of development management has increased and it is facing new challenges. In order to tackle the needs and challenges of development management, a new managerial approach called 'project management' has emerged as an alternative approach since the late sixties. This new approach emerged to full-fill the developmental demands of the present time both in the developed and the developing countries. In Bangladesh, development

management is essentially seen from a project approach both in public and NGO sector.

The concept of project management underlines a set of principles, methods and techniques that assist in making effective planning for performing certain tasks to achieve some stated objectives of a project (Sethi, 1990). Project management can be defined as a process to achieve the project objectives within time; within the allocated cost; at the desired performance/ technology level utilizing the assigned resources effectively and efficiently (Aminuzzaman, 1992). Thus, project management is the steering that is required for securing the various inputs, processing of the inputs to transforming them into the desired outputs.

Project management approach is also characterized by new methods of management restructuring and adaptation of special management techniques. It is considered as a relatively modern approach (Kerzner, 1984). The present world is constantly changing and the highly bureaucratic and traditional administrative structures fail to respond rapidly to the changing environment. On the other hand, the restructuring and adaptation of special management techniques make the project management approach as the most suitable and appropriate management approach for the present world. The changing environment has created enormous strains upon the existing organizational forms and called for the introduction of project management approach. Thus the traditional approach has gradually been replaced by project management approach.

3.3 Project Management in Bangladesh

According to the World Bank rating, Bangladesh is one of the most poor nations of the world. It is dependent on foreign aid even for its mere survival. Most of the development projects in Bangladesh are managed and controlled by the government machinery. The government of Bangladesh (GOB) administers the development projects through its Annual Development Program (ADP). The most common, useful and powerful instrument of project management of the GOB is the ADP that has been widely used since the then Pakistan period.

In order to have a clear idea about ADP, the evolution of the Bangladesh Planning Commission and the historical background of ADP need to be highlighted. Despite its preoccupation with the immediate effects of partition, from the very outset, the Government of the then Pakistan (GOP) realized the importance of development. To co-ordinate different developmental schemes and to determine their priorities, a Development Board, a Planning Advisory Board and an Economic

Committee of the Cabinet were set up in 1948. Later on, the Ministry of Economic Affairs was established in 1949 to co-ordinate the planning and economic activities of different ministries.

The First Five Year Plan (1955) highlighted that the Government of Pakistan prepared a six-year development plan which was scheduled to go into effect from the middle of 1951. In order to execute the six-year plan, the GOP setup an autonomous administrative machinery consisting of an Economic Council, a Planning Commission and a number of sub-commissions replacing the earlier Development Board, the Planning Advisory Board and the Economic Committee of the Cabinet. A two-year priority Plan was drawn up in 1956 within the framework of the six-year plan. The concept of ADP has come from that two-year plan.

The six-year plan was prepared in the absence of much essential information and basic statistic. As a result, its execution did not follow the intended line. However, the draft First Five Year Plan (1955-1960) of Pakistan period was prepared in the latter part of 1955 and was published in 1956. Since then, an annual development plan was prepared for each fiscal year (FFYP, 1956).

The Bangladesh Planning Commission inherited its identity from the East Pakistan Planning Department. After independence, in keeping with the planning requirements of the independent country, the GOB upgraded the Planning Department to a full-fledged Planning Commission in 1972 by a Resolution of the Government. Now Bangladesh Planning Commission is the central planning agency of the GOB.

3.4 Planning process in Bangladesh

In the process of public policy making in Bangladesh, Planning Commission (PC) plays a significant role. Planning Commission is a body of professionals and sector specialists engaged in the formulation of macro as well as micro economic policies of the government. The PC through the formulation of the Annual Development Plans and the Five Year Plans, translate the ideas, aspirations and the commitment of the government (Aminuzzaman, 1996). In other words, PC is the central organization of the GOB for development of plans, programs as well as projects. The PC works in close collaboration with different line ministries and functional departments. The PC also maintains a close liaison with different donor agencies. Planning Commission is composed of six divisions. These are:

i) General Economics Division (GED)
ii) Programming, Evaluation and Appraisal Division

iii) Socio-Economic Infrastructure Division
iv) Industries and Energy Division
v) Physical infrastructure Division and
vi) Agriculture, Water and Rural Institutions Division.

3.5 Functions of Planning Commission

General Economic Division and the Program, Evaluation and Appraisal Division deal with the general macro issues of the national economy.

Functions of the GED:

- Evaluation of plans and policies;
- Review of macro economic situation covering national income, international economic relations, savings, investments, fiscal and monitory situation, employment and other macro economic aspects of the economy;
- Determination of macro-economic policies;
- Co-ordination of preparation of plans like Five year and Annual plans;
- Co-ordination of research on macro-economic issues.

Functions of Program, Evaluation and Appraisal Division:

- Co-ordination of preparation of annual development programs;
- Authorization of development projects and release of funds for unapproved projects;
- Economic appraisal of development projects.

Other four divisions deal with the planning and policy issues of different sectors of the national economy.

Functions of the sectoral divisions are as follows:

- Formulation of sector plans consistent with the macro planning objectives;
- Coordination of sector development programs consistent with the sector plans;
- Processing of development projects including project appraisal and serving as the secretariat of the sector project evaluation committee;
- Preparation of sector annual development programs in consultation with the sector ministries and agencies;
- Formulation of sector development and planning policies.

The functions of the Planning Commission are discharged through a six-tier structure of officials, namely Member, Division Chief, Joint Chief, Deputy Chief, Assistant Chief and Research Officer. The working

units with a division are wings headed by Joint Chiefs, branches headed by Deputy Chiefs and desks headed by Assistant Chiefs and Research Officers.

Role of Planning Commission in the project preparation process in Bangladesh

Project idea formulation:

- # Different sector studies undertaken by the PC;
- # Sponsored research and consulting works of the PC.

Project Identification:

- # Professionals of the PC;
- # Consultant hired by the PC;
- # Joint Committee along with the donors;
- # Special instructions from the Chief Executives;
- # Donors indication/interest/preferences.

Project Pre-feasibility/feasibility:

- # Concerned divisions of the PC in collaboration with the Executing and Implementing agencies and donors.

Project Approval:

- # Type B projects are approved by the PC PEC;
- # Type C projects are recommended by the PC to ECNEC;
- # Through the ECNEC is the final approving authority for type C projects but the technicality of such projects are examined by the PC. In practical terms, the ECNEC almost in every case approves what the PC has recommended.

Table 3.1 shows different phases of the planning process in Bangladesh.

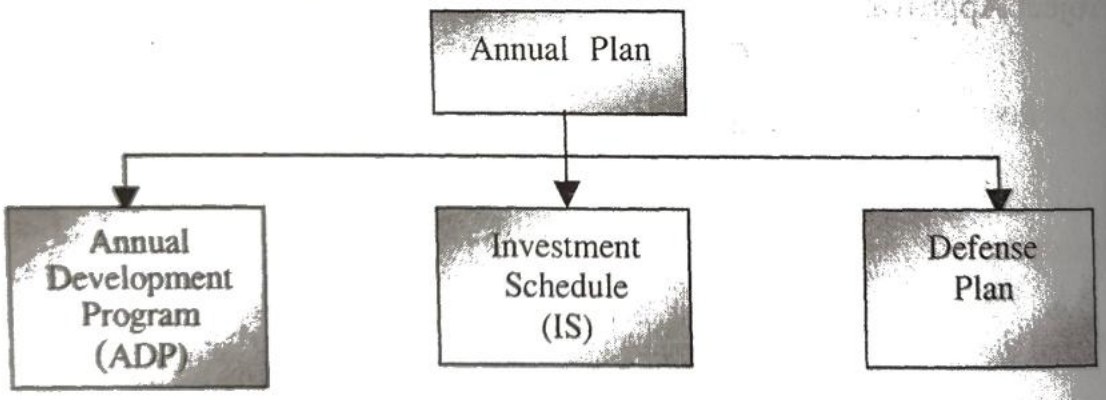
Table-3.1: The Planning process in Bangladesh

Function	Responsible Agencies
Project Identification	Local-level organizations, executing agencies, sponsoring ministries/departments or corporations. Planning Commission and donor agencies.
Technical scrutiny	Planning cells of line departments, ministries, and corporation.
Project appraisal and approval	Executive Committee of the National Economic Council, National Project Evaluation Committee, Departmental Project Evaluation Committees.
Funding	Annual Development Program (ADP), which also covers foreign aid allocation.
Project implementation	Line departments/ministries/corporations.
National policymaking	National Economic Council (NEC).

Source: Ahmed and Bamberger, 1989

Process of ADP: The ADP is for the public sector projects whereas the Investment Schedule (IS) is for the private sector projects. ADP needs to be more specific and pragmatic as it is the prime instrument for resource allocation for investments and activities of the government for the concerned financial year. The preparation of a good ADP depends on cooperation of all ministries and the executing agencies.

Figure-2: Components of Annual Plan



Preparation of ADP: The essential steps that are involved in the preparation of ADP are as follows:

1) Sector division of the Planning Commission (PC), in consultation with the Finance Division and the External Resources (/Relations) Division (ERD), determines the available resources and invites projects from different ministries.
2) In consultation with the ERD and relevant agencies, the Sector Division of the PC scrutinize all the proposals.

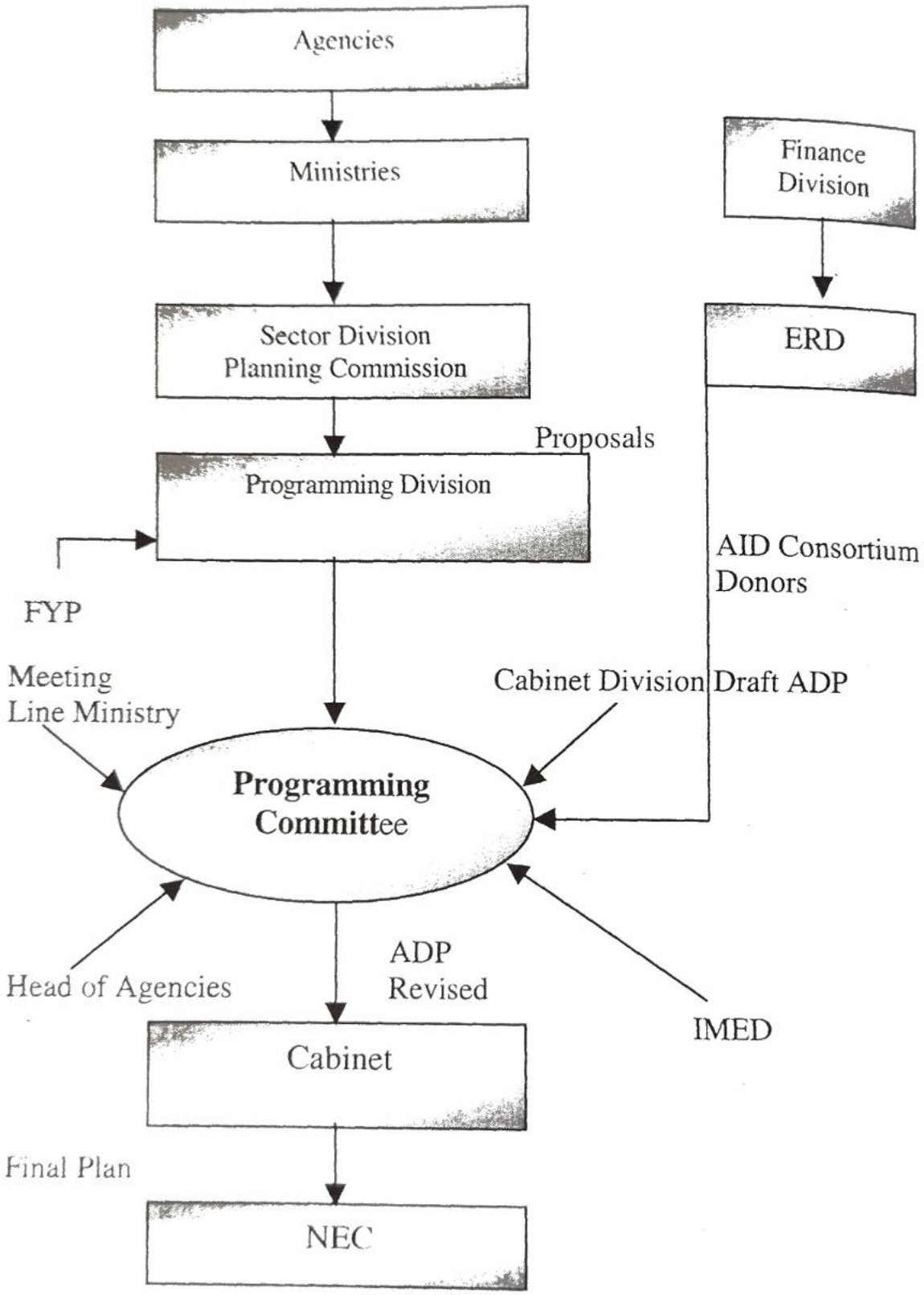
3) Sector Division of the PC then sends all the scrutinized proposals to the Programming Division of the PC for preparing a draft ADP.
4) The draft ADP is prepared by the Programming Division of the PC.
5) A programming committee (headed by Member, Programming in PC and with members from ERD, Finance Division, IMED. President's Secretariat, concerned ministry, Head of Agency and the Sector Division of PC revise the draft ADP.
6) The revised ADP is submitted to the National Economic Council (NEC) for approval.

The whole process may take about four to five months from February to June. The preparation of the Annual Technical Assistance Program (ATAP) composed of approved technical assistance projects takes place simultaneously. The mid-term Five Year Plan (FYP) projects are selected in categories to determine their priority and the higher priority projects are selected for resource allocation in the ADP. The ADP in Bangladesh is integrated into the annual budget, although ADP may involve economic policies, controls and directives that may extend beyond the budget.

At the programming committee, the major guidelines for screening include consistency with sectoral goals, availability of foreign aid, completion status of projects etc. Prior to the approval of the NEC the ADP is required to approve by the cabinet.

The following figure shows the preparation process of ADP.

Figure- 3: Preparation of Annual Development Program in Bangladesh



Source: Chadha1989

Approval of different development projects

The PC sorts out different projects into different categories. Table 3.2 shows the different types of projects on the basis of magnitude of investment and the level of approving authority.

Table-3.2: Types of Projects by Magnitude of Investment and Approving Authority

Cat	Investment Size	Level of Approving Authority
A.	All projects/schemes costing up to Tk. Two core or 20 million Note:However, (i)the feasibility studies for projects, (ii)planning cell projects, (iii)TA projects, (iv)BMRE projects, (v)PPP's are to be processed through Planning Commission and not by the line Ministry.	Minister-in-charge of the concerned Ministry on the recommendation of Departmental Project Evaluation Committee.
B.	(1)All projects/schemes costing over Tk. Twenty million or Two cores and upto Tk. five cores or Tk. 50 million.	Minister-in-charge of Planning on the recommendations of the Planning Commission Project Evaluation Committee.
C.	All projects/schemes costing more than those are included in "B" Category.	Executive Committee of the National Economic Council (ECNEC) on the recommendations of the PC, PEC and the Planning Minister.

Source: Chadha, 1989

Performance of Public Sector Project Management

As an aid dependent country, Bangladesh receives a huge amount of foreign aid. But at the same time, Bangladesh has a very poor record of aid utilization and a very low level of implementation of public sector projects, which are about 80 per cent of foreign aid (Aminuzzaman, 1992). Table 3.3 gives an overview of different development projects and the rate of project implementation under the ADP in Bangladesh.

Table-3.3: Rate of Implementation of ADP Projects

Year	No. of projects planned	No. of projects Completed	No. of projects incomplete
1973-74	10	3	70.00
1974-75	21	12	42.86
1975-76	55	41	25.45
1976-77	175	85	51.43
1977-78	391	145	62.92
1978-79	261	116	55.56
1979-80	512	357	30.27
1980-81	312	127	60.44
1981-82	228	119	47.81
1982-83	192	143	25.52
1983-84	142	72	49.30
1984-85	288	110	61.91
1985-86	112	46	58.93
1986-87	116	53	54.31
1987-88	90	48	46.67
1988-89	138	65	52.90

Source: Aminuzzaman, 1992

A recent study has estimated that, delay in implementation of projects increases project costs by 35-40 per cent and prolongs implementation period by 60 per cent as compared to the time frame anticipated at project approval. Besides, widespread corruption and inefficiency hamper delivery of goods and services in public sector (UNDP, 1988; GOB and USAID, 1980). Delays in project implementation frustrate the goals and objectives of development planning in Bangladesh. The most critical impact of such inefficient and corrupt administration reflects on the absorptive capacity of foreign aid upon which the economy of the country is mostly dependent. Different donor agencies, especially the World Bank and the IMF, have often created pressure on GOB that aid would strictly tied to improved performance in utilization and management.

Analyzing the poor performance of public administration in project management, the Implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation Division of the Ministry of Planning has identified the following causative factors:

i) Defects in the feasibility studies and project design.
ii) Winding up of incomplete projects.
iii) Lack of initiative.
iv) Delays in resource deployment.
v) Shortage of funds, especially for organization and management purpose.
vi) Weakness in project management.

Similarly, the Task Force Report (Task Force, 1990) has shown unsatisfactory performance of the GOB projects and identified a set of major deficiencies which include:

Lack of strong and competent planning organization: According to the Task Force, the planning organization of the GOB is "one of the weakest organizations of the government." Lack of effective system and discipline in planning process enables the people in power to take up projects according to their desire and interest. The Task Force considered the planning commission as only "an agency for processing project documents." The Report stated that the commission was unable to undertake rigorous appraisal and examination of projects or sectional programs in terms of macro-economic consistency with national development plans.

Lack of transparency and accountability: Lack of appropriate public accountability and transparency in project management, inevitably generated corruption, cronyism and misuse of power.

Centralized administration: Lack of trust, excessive reliance on hierarchy, complex as well as conflicting rules and procedures within the government machinery have given rise to a highly centralized administration and government decisions are inevitably delayed.

Lack of motivation: The upward concentration of power and authority at the top level has sapped the drive and dynamism at the field level, which remain responsible for project implementation.

Jealously among ministries/departments: Different ministries/ agencies of the government try to guard their own interest. Even after a project is approved in an inter-ministerial meeting, separate clearance is required for each case of post creation, fund release, land acquisition etc. which impose severe constraints on project implementation.

Lack of coordination among ministries: Inter-ministerial coordination at the secretariat and inter-agency coordination at the field level, are unsatisfactory. Most multi-sectional projects suffer on this account.

Little or no concern for project sustainability: At the end of projects, evaluation or project impact analysis is not undertaken for completed schemes. Thus there is little effort towards project sustainability.

An extensive study was undertaken to analyze the project management environment in Bangladesh, under which 28 ADP projects of different fiscal years were studied. Analyzing the data, it was concluded that delay during the project implementation phase was a very common feature for almost all projects in Bangladesh.

The following reasons were identified that result delay in project implementation (Aminuzzaman, 1992)

- Delay in input procurement and delivery;
- Delay in disbursement of fund;
- Delay in decision making;
- Inexperienced staff;
- Lack of inter-agency coordination;
- Land dispute;
- Procedural delays due to donors' rules;
- Lack of skilled manpower;
- Natural calamity;
- Poor selection of technology;
- Poor project identification;
- Local law and order situation;
- Project did not attract clients.

The causes that were identified by this study as the impeding factors in project implementation were quite similar to the findings of other studies. A comparative rank order of major causes of delays in public sector project implementation in Bangladesh is presented in table 3.4.

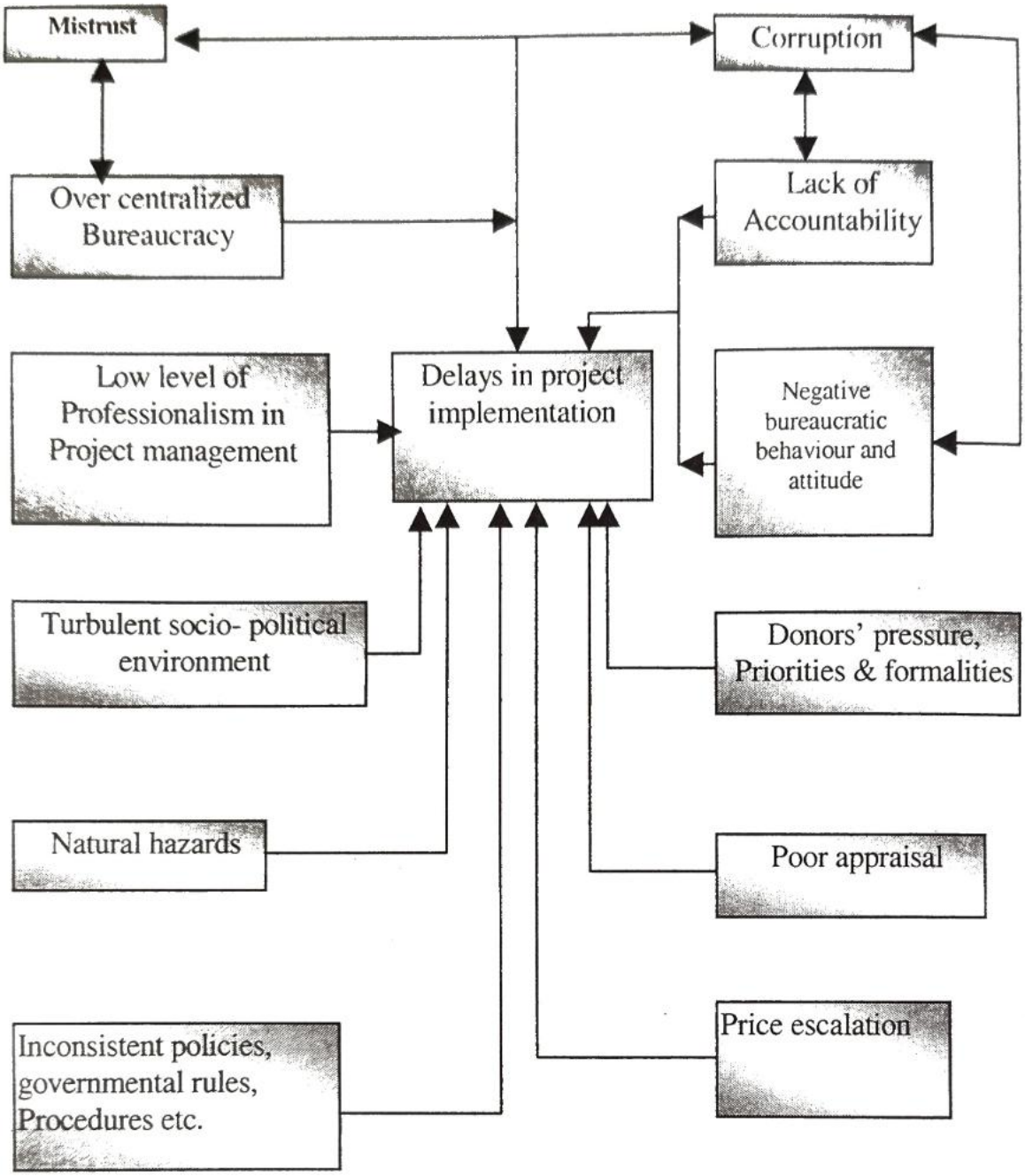
Table-3.4: Problems of Public Sector Project Implementation (in rank order)

World Bank 1987	World Bank 1989	DAI 1988	Chadha 1989	IMED 1989
1 Primary delay due to insufficient funds.	1. Procurement delays	1. Discontinuity between Macro-Planning & project cycle	1. Lack of time concept in project preparation	1. Insufficient allocation of money
2. Delay in approval due to staffing constraints in Planning Commission & Ministries.	2. Local currency shortage	2. Delays in phases	2. Centralization of authority delays decision at every points	2. Delay in project approval
3. Delay in approval due to micro management review at the Planning Commission.	3. TA Consultants	3. Shortage of local resources (financial and human)	3. Procedural rigidities	3. Frequent transfer of project director
4. Fund release procedure.	4. Recruitment & staffing of projects	4. Inadequate data throughout all phases of the project	4. Lack of project management skills	4. Delay in tender formalities work orders etc.
5.Land acquisition.	5. Land acquisition	5. Lack of flexibility & delegation of authority	5. Lack of technical skills during project implementation phases	5. Delays in revisions of projects
6.Delay in appointing key officials.	6. Project monitoring	6. Existing bureaucratic culture & over-centralization	6. Lack of accountability system	6. Delays in land acquisition
7. Procurement.		7. Procurement		7. Delays in arrangement of project funding
8.Consultant Recruitment.		8. Coordination of implementation		8. Delay in allocation of materials & equipment
9. Project management delegation motivation issues.		9. Monitoring & evaluation		9. Delay in accomplishing contracts with donors.

*Source: **Aminuzzaman, 1992.***

The following figure highlights the factors that cause delay in project implementation in Bangladesh.

Figure-4: Delay in Project Implementation



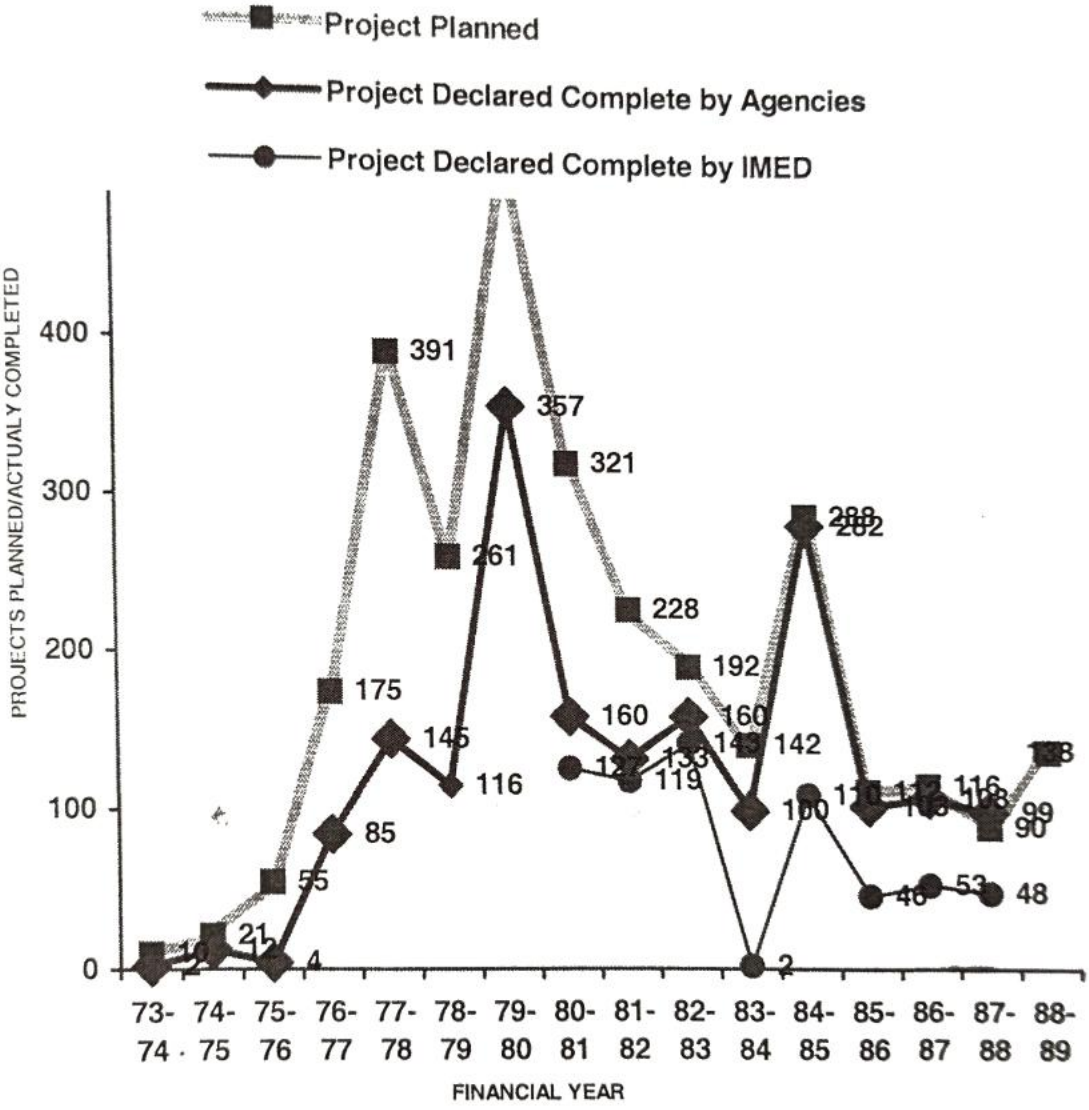
Source: Aminuzzaman, 1992.

Figure 4 presents the relationships among the factors that are identified as the main causes of delay in project implementation. Mistrust, corruption, over centralized bureaucracy, negative bureaucratic attitude and behavior, which exist in the bureaucratic culture of this country, play a significant role in delays in project implementation. Low level of professionalism in project and lack of accountability are also responsible for such delays. Besides, the common natural hazards, turbulent socio-economic environment and inconsistent government policies, rules etc. also become major obstacles

to implement the projects within the time frame. Poor appraisal of the projects and price escalation are two main causes in this regard. Besides, donors' pressures, priorities and formalities also become major barriers in timely implementation of projects.

The impact of the above mentioned delaying factors on the project completion cycle reflects a significant discrepancy between the number of projects planned and the number of projects completed for a given period of time. This discrepancy is graphically shown in figure 5.

Figure : 5 A.D.P. Over years



3.6 Other Institutional Framework of Development Management

The poor project management environment in governmental sector in Bangladesh created a scope for growth of different alternative institutional framework of development management. Among other institutional framework of development management, the NGO sector represents itself

as a promising alternative institution in this country.

The NGO sector has proved its potentiality in the context of felt needs in development management in the present world. According to Wijeweera, the NGO sector has the potentiality and capacity to shoulder development responsibilities that can displace the traditional dependence on governmental agencies. He also argued that NGOs hold out a better prospect for developing countries (Wijeweera, 1995). Brown and Korten (1991) identified the NGOs as the organizations that have been attracting growing attention as possible alternative to government in addressing the needs of the population. And the underlying factors behind such growing attention towards NGO are as follows:

- Growing interest among donors and national governments in strengthening the developmental roles of institutions outside the public sector;
- The demonstrated capacity of some NGOs to reach the poor more effectively than public agencies.
- A sharp decline in public development resources, causing governments to search for more cost-effective alternatives to conventional public services and development programs. The NGOs deliver services at a relatively low cost.
- Small size, administrative flexibility and relative freedom from political constrains make NGOs able to find out innovative solutions to novel problems and to support successful innovation in governmental programs.

The above factors are also observed in the context of Bangladesh. And as result of the acceptance of the NGO sector as an important alternative framework in the development field, some established NGOs in Bangladesh have become able to carry out programs on a national scale and influence national policies. In Bangladesh there are some very successful and established NGOs such as BRAC, Proshika, ASA.

3.7 Conclusion

Available data support that most of the development projects of Bangladesh run through foreign aid, but the aid utilization performance of the GOB is very much unsatisfactory. Poor performance of the GOB in project management makes the donor countries and agencies dissatisfied and they seek other institutional framework in development/project management.

For the public sector projects, there exist a lack of competent planning organization in Bangladesh that allows the people in power to

take up projects according to their subjective desire and interest. It opens the door for undertaking inappropriate projects that may ultimately hamper their management. The institutional framework of project management is centralized in the hands of the government where ADP is the most common and powerful instrument. But the bureaucratic and complex process of preparing ADP and delay in disbursement of fund create a lot of problems. Highly centralized public administration, lack of skilled manpower, lack of coordination and jealously among different government ministries and departments are partly responsible for such poor performance. Concentrations of authority at the top level also sap the motivation and dynamism of field level government employees. A lot of projects are delayed as a result of inappropriate understanding of rules and procedures. Besides, lack of transparency and accountability generate corruption, cronyism and misuse of power in the public sector.

Inefficiency in the public sector project management environment gave the scope for development of alternative institutional framework where the NGO sector has jumped in as a promising alternative institution. Gradually, a set of successful and established NGOs in Bangladesh has proven the potentiality of this sector. As a result, the attraction and reliance of the donor countries and agencies on this institutional framework are constantly increasing.

Chapter 4
Role of the NGOs: A Global Perspective

4.1 Introduction

The explosive emergence of NGOs has been observed as a major collective actor in development activities and on the public agenda in general. It is identified as a "significant political, social and economic trend." (Cernea, 1987) The accelerated growth of non-governmental organizations is due to the increased realization of the world that voluntary action has a significant complementary role in social welfare and development programs (Khanna, 1988). However, the ability of NGOs to make positive contributions in many spheres of national development is not fully recognized in current development thinking.

This chapter focuses on the emergence of NGOs, the reasons for their emergence and the underlying philosophy behind their growth. It especially highlights on the strengths as well as the weakness of the NGOs. This chapter also focuses on the growth of the development assistance that NGOs receive from donor community over the years, which tesify to the scope and role of the NGOs.

4.2 Philosophy of NGOs

Non-governmental organizations believe in the Schumacher principle of development which states that "people are primary and ultimate source of any wealth what-so-ever" (Schumacher, 1973). Therefore, the major development programs of these organizations are undertaken for the people and by the people. The main philosophy of NGOs is based on the actualization of human potential in terms of life-sustenance, esteem and freedom (Goulet, 1969).

Ideologically the NGOs have both religious and political justification for their efforts. Many people believe that the support of the NGO is a moral obligation rooted in religious or humanitarian convictions. The political justification flows from a pluralistic concept of democracy as a system. It is believed that the NGOs strengthen the pluralistic, democratic force in a society by providing opportunities for people's participation.

4.3 Emergence of NGOs

Although the NGOs have only recently emerged into the development limelight, they are not a recent phenomenon (Korten, 1991). There is a long history of international voluntary action to assist the victims of wars and natural disaster and also to provide welfare services to the poor. Generally these initiatives have been taken by various religious groups with a view to serving the people. In 1647, Irish Protestants sent food aid to the settlers in North America who were the victims of the Indian wars. Throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, private British charities supported missionaries and schools for the Indians, Blacks and the poor Whites in America (Sommer, 1977). In 1793 private groups in the Unites States provided voluntary assistance to refugees fleeing revolutionary turmoil in Santo DoniNGO. The American Red cross was established in 1882. In the nineteenth century, major international relief and missionary societies sprang up in Europe and America.

During the World War I, private international initiatives grew substantially. Food contributions for U.S. charities to Europe totaled an annual $ 250 million during this period (Sommer, 1977). The oldest British international charities "Save the children Fund" was established in 1919 as an outgrowth of opposition to the Allied blockade of Germany (OECD, 1988).

Many of the major international NGOs now assisting developing countries were established in Europe to help the victims of the World War II; such as, the Catholic Relief-Service and CARE. With a view to giving aid to the starving children in Nazi-Occupied Greece, Oxfam (U.K.) came into operation in 1942.

As Europe's post-war recovery progressed, these organizations increasingly turned their attention to developing countries. Particular efforts were made to assist the refugees from political conflicts in China, India, Korea and the Middle East (OECD, 1988). Under the Agricultural Act of 1949, the U.S. voluntary agencies became qualified to distribute government surplus food stocks to the needy people in developing countries (OECD, 1988). This lead in time to a substantial increase in the scope of American efforts.

In the early 1960s, international voluntary agencies became increasingly interested in development work. The impetus came from the recent independence of former colonies and the corresponding changes in relationships between churches in developed and developing countries. The history of the development of NGOs indigenous to Southern countries follows the similar patterns to those of NGO assistance from the North. Until-the mid 1960s, NGOs' activities in Latin America, especially

those connected with the Catholic Church, were substantially oriented to charitable welfare actions. Churches and missionary societies were important in Africa throughout the colonial years, as colonial governments left the provision of basic education and health care largely to church-related organizations.

In South Asia, the modern NGO movement traces its roots to the struggle for independence. Voluntary initiatives were taken to help and work among the rural poor and the disadvantaged castes of this area in response to the call of Mahatma Gandhi in the 1920s and 1930s. Between mid 1960s and mid 1970s, many NGOs became innovators in areas such as appropriate technology, adult education and health care to improve the conditions of the poor (Tandon, 1987).

As the donors and many governments have given greater attention to poverty reduction and environmental sustainability, the NGO attributes have become increasingly important in recent years. "Rolling back the state" where it has become overloaded, also expanded opportunities for NGOs and private sector. Moreover, the debate of "good governance" has highlighted the need for pluralism and prominent citizens' voice in international development planning, which the NGOs can contribute in many ways including through the promotion of participatory development (Bhatnagar and Williams, 1992).

Development thinkers consider the role of the NGOs not only in "fill in the gaps" but also as a response to failures in the public and private sectors (Salamon and Anheier, 1991; Bratton, 1990). The NGOs have been heralded as new agents with the capacity and commitment to make-up for the shortcomings of the state and the market. Thus the international donors, governments, leaders and scholars of the developing countries begun to pay greater attention to the role and potentials of NGOs in the development process. Kozlowski (1983) identified the NGOs as the third major channel. Paul (1991) considered the emergence of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) as a third sector in the economy as an important phenomenon.

Different development thinkers, donors, governments of various countries realized the important role played by the NGO sector and they recognized it as an emerging, potential third sector along with the state and the market. Thus the NGO sector has established its firm position as a separate and essential sector in the present global environment. In mid 1970s, a new trust emerged among NGOs disenchanted with conventional development theories and practices. Attention was given by them on organization building and consciousness raising among the poor so as to empower them to struggle for their rights and to acquire the resources for

development. Thus the NGOs have come to see the need for a 'developmental' approach. In the late 1970s, the welfare versus development debate in NGO approach became quite active. The thoughts of many NGOs were substantially influenced by John Sommer's book 'Beyond Charity'. Community development approach provides the poor with a scope for their development.

The world has witnessed the rapid growth of NGOs in 1980s. All over the world, the NGOs emerged as an important actor and proved their potential contribution in the areas of development. Gradually the NGO movement has matured and gained both momentum and support throughout the world (Farrington and Bebbington ed., 1993).

4.4 Critical Factors of the Expansion of the NGOs

Within the international development community, there has been flourishing a rapid increase of interest in non-governmental and non-profit organizations. In addressing the needs of the population, these organizations are identified as possible alternative institutions to the public sectors. (Brown and Korten , 1991). The following factors have contributed to the rapid growth of the NGOs all over the world in the last decade.

Changed global environment: As a result of the growing geographical and functional interdependence of the world system, the international relations paradigm has been progressively enlarged. The traditionally dominant realist approach has lost a great deal of its explanatory power with the development of a global political economy based on internationalization of trade, production and finance. From a theoretical standpoint, the transformations of the world environment have enabled the emergence of the notion of "international non-state actor" (Mansbach, Fergnon and Lampert, 1976; Taylor, 1984; Kegley and Wittkopf, 1986).

Changed International Political Philosophy: In the 1980s when Republican President Ronald Regan came to power in the U.S.A., a new philosophy was adopted by his government. The Regan administration rejected the big-government concept. The scope of big-government was inherently limited by financial constraints that were not likely soon to disappear. Moreover, the performance of government bureaucracies as agents of social and economic development proved disappointing. In some cases bureaucratic expansion seemed to entail only greater nepotism, corruption, incompetence and waste of public funds (Esman, 1988). The excess of state inefficiency, repression and corruption require a rethinking among those who previously assumed that social

development would be achieved through public sector actions (Farrington and Bebbington ed., 1993). Economist Milton who was an advisor to the U.S. government during the Regan administration, advocated to give emphasize on less-government concept, which encouraged the flourishing of non-governmental sector. The main theme of the less-government philosophy was to diminish the functional areas of government and encouraged the enlargement of functional coverage of non-governmental organizations. Thus the expectations about the capabilities of public agencies were reduced and the world leaders searched for alternative means to provide public services. The same philosophy was fostered by the contemporary British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher. The philosophy of these two contemporary world leaders directly and indirectly contributed a lot to the growth of the NGOs. As governments could not do everything effectively, alternative and complementary channels needed to be identified, encouraged and fostered. Since then the non-governmental organizations are intrinsically preferred under public sponsorship because of their greater discretion, responsiveness and innovative capacity.

Attraction and Trust of Major Donor Agencies: As a result of changed global, political and economic environment, the policies of the major donor agencies gradually changed. In that situation the NGO sector was able to attract the attention of bilateral and multilateral donor agencies, who in the past, were little concerned with such local organizations (World Bank, 1992). In his address to the Board of Governors of the World Bank in Berlin, the then president of the Bank Barber Conable stated that "Government policies and public programs play a critical role in development. But governments cannot do everything. NGOs in many developing countries have enormous potential for flexible and effective action "(Paul, 1991).

There was a growing interest among the donors in the role of NGOs as sources of grass-root level feed back in the design, implementation and evaluation of projects. With the growing awareness of the limitations of governments the recognition of the contribution of NGOs to development has increased. As a result, the NGO sector became an active and innovative participant in the work of the international aid regime. Multilateral agencies began to call for more involvement of NGOs in different development programs that were implemented through governmental organizations (World Bank, 1991 (a); 1991 (b); Farnworth, 1991; Salmen and Eaves, 1989). Besides, donors and national governments are interested in strengthening the developmental roles of institutions outside the public sector (Brown and Korton, 1991). NGOs

are identified as an alternative agent of filling the gaps where the government programs are weak (Bebbington and Farrington ed., 1993). Besides, the donors took interest in the NGO sector as they realized that the NGOs were able to control a large share of the funds committed as development assistance. Thus the role of NGOs as development agents was institutionalized and the scope of their interventions was constantly growing (Therien, 1991).

Failure of Governments and Search for Alternative Model: Interest in the work of NGOs has increased markedly over the past ten years with the growing recognition of the inadequacy, constraints, limitations and sometimes inappropriateness' of governmental efforts in a variety of fields. This realization led to search for alternative models and approaches to development in the context of frustration at the failure of conventional approaches to achieve the goals set by development planners and policy makers (Peggy, 1987).

4.5 Strengths of NGOs

In the present world, the NGOs are treated as promoters of alternative development strategies (Drabek: 1987). The NGOs perform public functions that normally fall within the purview of the government (Douglas, 1987). NGO sector enjoys some comparative advantages over public sector which demonstrate their capacity to reach the poor more effectively than public agencies (Brown and Korton, 1991).

The advantages of NGOs are: Capacity to reach the poor and the remote areas: First of all, the NGOs focus on the poor segment of the society which in many cases don't benefit from governmental services. These communities are often located in remote areas where government programs are either limited, don't exist or are ineffective (Cernea, 1988).

Capacity to promote local participation: The overall objective of NGO intervention is to enable the disadvantaged groups to share the benefits of development. The prime purpose of the NGOs is to encourage and develop local potentials (Wilson, 1983). To this end, beneficiary participation in identifying and developing programs to meet their own basic needs is very important. Such participation ensures that these programs are compatible with local conditions, culture and possibilities (Kozlowski, 1983).

Capacity to work with other agencies: Many NGOs are ready and able to assist governments, local government departments and local voluntary agencies. They are not limited to working with any particular type of recipient agency but can work with the most appropriate structure or body.

Capacity of unique understanding of local institutions and socio-cultural environment: NGOs tend to have accurate knowledge and understanding of local needs and capacities. With and through their counterparts, they are usually able to locate individuals within communities who have the requisite skills to undertake projects as well as find materials, if they have.

Capacity to act quickly: Speed of action and a minimum of bureaucratic tangle is one of the greatest assets of development NGOs. They can take rapid decisions on how to respond to the needs. They have the capacity and are not afraid of failures, partly because the scale of operations is small and the failure of one small project doesn't bring down an enormous program. Rather it permits lessons to be learned and transmitted to other projects.

Capacity to work with flexibility: Due to their small size the NGOs tend to be more flexible than government programs or local government programs.

Capacity to take risks and experiments: The small size of NGO projects is directly related to their purpose. NGOs normally undertake pilot projects in order to experiment or act as a catalyst. To attain their objectives they take risk much more readily than governmental agencies.

Capacity to innovate and adapt: The NGOs are oriented towards promoting new initiatives. They enjoy a comparative advantage in identifying the needs and building upon existing resources. Being more flexible than government agencies, they can transfer technologies developed elsewhere and adapt them to local conditions as well as work out innovative responses to the local needs. Through their continuous search for new approaches and experimentation the NGOs become creative and experienced especially in micro level planning of development activities (Sultan, 1990).

Capacity to operate on low costs: The commitment of the NGOs to use low-cost technologies and streamlined services enable them to operate efficiently on low budgets. Some large NGOs are able to implement national-scale programs that are cost effective (Korten, 1991).

Capacity to facilitate local resource mobilization and ensure local development: The NGOs have demonstrated their ability to facilitate resource mobilization by promoting local participation and their willingness to adapt to local needs and conditions in the support they provide to these groups (Brown and Korten, 1991) Thus the NGOs support local initiatives (World Bank, 1995).

Capacity to advocacy: The NGOs have the capacity to press the public sector to be more responsive. Their successful initiatives make

them able to influence national polices and give them the advocacy power to governmental organizations.

Besides, the NGOs have the capacity of a strong orientation to client service. (Korten, 1987). They have the capacity of developing a sound management system that provide rich flow of information (Korten, 1987). They also possess the capacity to have better arrangement to document their activities for potential replication (Sultan, 1990). This sector uses bottom-up planning approach (Sultan, 1990). Through their management system and ability to absorb funds the NGOs earn credibility with the donors (Peggy, 1987). NGOs prove their capacity to provide an efficient and effective alternative to public agencies. They also show their capacity to help the public services to improve their quality and enlarge their scope, guard common values and supplement the government. NGOs prove their capacity for long-standing involvement with particular geographical areas and client groups which help them to achieve a sense of solidarity (Hasan, 1993).

In addition to the above advantages, the NGOs have a number of other advantages over government agencies (Uphoff, 1987). Where the NGOs are administratively and financially stronger than a weak government, the NGOs can prove their important role in the development activities. They can also prove their capacity where government is not interested or unable to work in a particular area. Where government lacks the technical or other skills required to support the developmental process, the NGOs can use their capacity by providing required technical and other skills. Where government wishes to support participatory development but lacks the knowledge or capacity to be effective, NGOs can provide support in this respect. Where the government is obliged to work within the pattern of traditional values and relations and is less able to work outside this pattern, the NGOs can use their capacity to work outside the pattern and also able to work with modern values. Where government is favorable towards NGO initiatives in promoting participatory development, the NGOs can fruitfully use their capacity (Uphoff, 1987).

4.6 Weaknesses of NGOs

As opposed to the comparative advantages, the NGOs have some weakness. The NGOs are commonly criticized for having the following weaknesses:

Limited replicability: Many NGO-sponsored activities are too small and localized to have important regional or national impact. NGO

activities depend on a highly motivated staff and where such high level of motivation can not be replicated, the activities themselves cannot be replicated (Cernea, 1989).

Limited self-sustainability: Many NGO-sponsored projects are not designed in a way that would able them to sustain with little or no outside aid. The NGOs are unable to adopt long-term and efficient planning strategies (Cernea, 1989).

Limited technical capacity: Local NGO projects are often initiated with insufficient technical feasibility analysis and inadequate information. This is often the result of their lack of sufficient managerial skills that affects the overall impact of the programs (Cernea, 1989).

Lack of broad programming content: The NGOs often carry out their initiatives and projects individually which remain relatively isolated from other NGOs or programs and this tendency hinders the establishment of country-wide or regional programs (Cernea, 1989).

Limited ability to reach the poorest segment of the society: Although the NGOs tent to reach the poor, it is also true that they cannot effectively reach the 'poorest of the poor' in the society e.g. the floating population.

Inability to scale-up activities: Because of their small size and resources, limited administrative system, intensive forms in a few communities, the difficulty in maintaining their essential value consensus (as the staff expands) the NGOs are unable to scale-up their activities (Brown and Korten, 1991).

Dependency on Donors: The donors fund specific projects and normally finance against requests for identifiable and specific items. This reflects the fact that the funds are raised from private donations, agencies are accountable to their donors and the donors want to be able to identify something specific. The donors' attitude and restrictions towards NGOs can perpetuate a damaging dependency that is ultimately self-defeating if the purpose is to assist the country/ community/ organization to develop a level of self-sufficiency. Besides, donors' special interest in certain sectors limits the areas of activities of the NGOs. Donors, frequent requirements to use their own staff, consultants, equipment and other material resources become a major constraint for the NGOs. The NGOs are criticized that, by taking funds they serve the interest of the donors and fulfill their objectives.

Paternalistic approach: NGOs tend to become "paternalistic" about their clients by continuously investing in the same beneficiaries instead of setting time targets for their graduation from poverty (Aminuzzaman, 1993).

Centralized operations: Some of the large NGOs are operated and run by their own bureaucracies. This is evident in cases where the head office of the NGOs takes decisions in a way, which leaves little scope for its local level staff and group members to take new initiatives or respond immediately to specific issues to a locality.

An UNDP sponsored study (UNDP, 1988) identified some limitations of NGOs which were as follows:

The NGOs slow-down the pace of development of the poor by withholding credits for longer periods of time. The people cannot survive on "consciousness" alone. The NGOs are heavily dependent on foreign sources and in the absence of accountability, too much money from outside can make them corrupt, controversial and bureaucratic.

With small projects in a village or two, it is easy to show remarkable success but it may not be possible to replicate these successes throughout the country. Because, countrywide replication of successful models based on small projects is not possible for the NGOs without such a decision and support from the government. But the NGOs do not have the authority to take such a decision. Because of this lack of socio-political leverage, NGOs are ineffective in running big project that would change the fate of a significant number of rural poor.

In another study the Asian Development Bank noted the following common criticisms of the NGOs:

i) Limited size, scope and thus impact;
ii) A loose structure, sometimes without real accountability to the poor on whose behalf the NGOs claim to be working.
iii) Concentration of efforts on the poor rather than very poor;
iv) Too easily inducted into areas of donor's interest (for the sake of assured fund);
v) An inadequate or unclear long-term strategy for building institutional capacity and self-reliance among the target group (ADB, 1993).

4.7 Development Assistance and NGO Sector

One of the key factors that has contributed to the enhanced recognition given to the NGO movement is the increased role played by the international and national NGOs in raising private funds for development and channeling them to the developing countries. In international assistance the NGOs have had a long record of participation. The funds that are channeled through the NGOs to the developing countries are currently equivalent to nearly nine (9) per cent of official development assistance that testifies to the scope and significance of the growing role

of the NGOs (Paul, 1991). The NGOs have played diverse roles including the delivery of relief and welfare services, human resource development, political activism, and empowerment and policy advocacy.

As for example, the Table 4.1 shows that over the 1970-1985 period, NGOs' yearly disbursements for development in the third world increased from $ 0.9 billion in 1970 to $ 1.4 billion in 1975 and to $ 4 billion in 1985. The bulk of this amount represents private funds raised by the NGOs themselves.

Table-4.1: NGO Assistance to the Development of Third World: 1970-1985 (US$ in billions)

	1970	1975	1980	1983	1985
Flows through NGOs Private grants	0.9	1.3	2.4	2.3	2.9
Official Development Assistance (ODA)	N.A.	0.1	1.0	1.3	1.1
Total disbursements	N.A.	1.4	3.4	3.6	4.0
Development assistance	6.9	13.8	27.3	27.5	29.6
DAC ODA– net Private grants – net	0.9	1.3	2.3	2.3	2.9
Total	7.8	15.1	29.7	29.8	32.5
Percentage of GNP: ODA Private	0.34	0.36	0.38	0.36	0.35
grants	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.04
Other: Developing countries' current account deficit	N.A.	57.1	129.3	97.5	80.0
NGO disbursements as percentage of current account deficit	N.A.	2.5	2.6	3.7	5.0
ODA contributions to NGOs as a percentage of NGO distributions	N.A.	7.1	29.4	36.1	27.5
ODA contributions to NGOs as a percentage of ODA	N.A.	0.7	3.6	4.7	3.6

Source: DAC/OECD, (1987) Paris/van der Heijden

The major donor governments of OECD countries have allocated a fraction of their official development assistance (ODA) to NGOs for use in NGO initiated activities. This fraction has increased eleven times between 1978 and 1985 (Cernea, 1989). According to the OECD, the NGOs of its Development Assistance Committee (DAC) member countries provided $ 3.3 billion in private contributions to developing countries in 1986. This was equivalent of a percent of total official development assistance (ODA) for that year. In addition, the government of DAC members countries channeled another $ 2.0 billion of their foreign assistance through NGOs (OECD, 1988).

Thus, the NGOs have gradually attracted the attention as well as donation of the donors for their functional coverage and play a significant role in the development process of the present world.

4.8 Conclusion

The above discussion focused on the emergence of NGOs and analyzed different factors that contribute for their emergence. The strengths as well as the weaknesses of the NGOs are also highlighted in this chapter. The NGOs have achieved the trust of the donor community. The present world increasingly realizes the role of NGOs and identifies the NGOs as "the most efficient channel of development" (Masoni, 1985). NGOs are now so prominent in the organizational inventory of the development field that the concerned thinkers consider them as one of the "three primary institutional sectors of human society" alongside government and business (Korten, 1989).

Chapter 5
NGOs in Bangladesh: An Overview

5.1 Introduction

Like in many other places in the world, the NGO sector in Bangladesh has been performing as a major actor in facilitating the process of institution building of the poor at the grassroots level over the last two decades (Clark, 1991). The NGOs become a significant actor in the development perspective of Bangladesh. The NGOs have been playing an effective role in working with the poor in addressing poverty, creation and testing of new ideas, methods, programs and strategies of poverty alleviation, conscientization and awareness building (Aminuzzaman, 1993).

This chapter focuses on the emergence, growth, role and functional coverage of NGOs in Bangladesh. It also presents the controversial role of NGO sector all over the world with special focus on Bangladesh.

5.2 Emergence of NGOs in Bangladesh

Pre-liberation period: In the form of private or religious trust based schools, hospitals and orphanages, the NGOs were working in this area of the sub-continent, but there were only a few NGOs working in the then East Pakistan. In the pre-liberation period, most of the NGOs were not only of foreign origin but also were missionaries that were working in this area. The Baptist Missionary Society is perhaps the oldest one which can be traced back to 1794 (Huda, 1990). In 1800, the Christian Mission Hospital was established in Rajshahi. Among the national organizations, perhaps the Kumndini Welfare Trust is the oldest one, which began its operation in 1944.

On the other hand, development oriented NGO activities are relatively new in Bangladesh and started their activities on a greater scale after the devastating cyclone 1970 and the liberation war in 1971. (Clements, 1985).

Post liberation period: Although the NGOs had been working in traditional form since the British colonial period, they got a radical transformation only after the war of Liberation in 1971 and turned into agents of development (Aminuzzaman, 1993.

Inhuman sufferings of people and a massive destruction of the physical infrastructure and the economy caused by the war of liberation called for immediate relief and rehabilitation interventions. Government of Bangladesh (GOB) had to face a Herculean task of renewal and reconstruction of the war torn economy after the war of independence. But the GOB neither had the capacity nor had the appropriate institutional mechanism to address to the volume and diversity of such enormous problems single-handed. At that time a large number of international NGOs and voluntary organizations extended their helping hands to assist Bangladesh (Aminuzzaman, 1993). Besides, a few national organizations developed at that period as spontaneous responses from a number of committed people, which are at present well known leading NGOs in Bangladesh.

5.3 Approaches of NGO Operation

Relief and Rehabilitation Approach: After the war of independence, the NGOs, both national and international were initially involved in the relief and rehabilitation task in Bangladesh. Their main operation was to distribute food, medicine, blankets, cloths etc. among the war affected people. Later on, they were involved in construction of houses, mobilization and reconstruction of transport facilities, development of physical infrastructures and in distribution of productive assets (Huda and Hussain, 1990).

The increased activities of the NGOs in the post liberation period were marked by massive funds channeled through them. Of the total aid commitment of roughly US$ 31.3 billion to Bangladesh, up to mid 1973, more than US$ 115 million was raised and channeled through NGOs (Abed et.al, 1984).

The charity and welfare orientation of NGOs continued till the end of 1972. According to Korten's classification, the NGOs working in Bangladesh till that time were first generation NGOs.

Community Development Approach: At the end of 1972, NGOs working in Bangladesh, felt that charity and welfare orientation could relieve the immediate sufferings of the distressed temporarily but could not yield a sustainable development in their socio-economic condition. From this realization, NGOs shifted their operational approach from relief and charity towards a self-reliant local development orientation.

Between 1973 and 1975, the second approach was in operation. During that time the NGOs concentrated their attention on developing integrated community development programs with various sector

activities, such as, agriculture, fisheries, livestock, cooperatives, health and family planning, adult education, vocational training, etc. NGOs emphasized on increasing food production and they provided technical assistance and inputs to farmers. This was a crucial learning period for the NGOs. Because soon they realized that their development efforts failed to achieve desired success owing to structural constraints imposed by the existing socio-political and economic system of this country. Various local forces along with the unpredictability of human equations compelled the NGOs to embark on a social analysis that focused on the dynamics of the rural power structure and its multi-faceted hegemony that inhibits rural development in terms of increasing polarization of resources (Huda, 1987). NGOs were compelled to carry out in-depth studies on the role of power relations in rural development whose findings paved the way towards a transition of a new approach to development. NGOs of this period can be identified as second generation NGOs according to the analysis of Korten.

Empowerment Approach: In this approach, NGOs made efforts to remove the structural barriers through initiating institutional changes and building the organizations of the poor. But from their experience they recognized that with a view to making these organizations effective, the myth of mental inhibitions of the poor, generated by a sense of helplessness, inertia, fatalism and passive acceptance of social injustice, was to be exploded. With a view to breaking the poor's mental barriers, the NGOs choose a process of non-formal education. The NGOs attempted to bring about changes in attitudes of the poor and also changed their capabilities to find out and examine the causes of exploitation and dependence, through this process (Huda, 1987). NGOs emphasized on the unity and solidarity among the poor to empower them to stand for their rights and to fight against social and economic injustice.

The recent trend of most of the national and also a number of foreign NGOs follow the strategy that seeks the 'empowerment' of the people. This assists the disadvantaged individuals and groups to gain greater control over local and national decision making and resources. It also enhances their ability and right to define collective goals, make decisions and learn from experience.

The role of the NGOs has strong social and political implications since it creates the possibility of a social system based on institutional pluralism rather than one dominated by either state or private agencies where many private enterprises, non-profit cooperatives and NGOs may function as integral parts of a public service economy (Brett, 1993).

5.4 Background of Emergence of NGOs

There are some specific reasons that have fostered the emergence and growth of NGOs in Bangladesh. The specific reasons are:

Tradition of Voluntary Activities: Voluntary undertakings by individuals or groups intending to serve and benefit the people have been in vogue for centuries in this country. With the changing social structures and consequent changes in believes, practices and social relations, the concept of voluntarism has marked a radical swing along a direction that involves professionalism, invites specialization and invokes formal management structures, which can be seen in contemporary NGOs operating in Bangladesh (Huda, 1990). In other words, volunteering is a part of the culture and religion of the people of Bangladesh (Hasan, 1992).

War of Independence: Inhuman sufferings of people and a massive destruction of the physical infrastructure and the economy of the country caused by the war of liberation in 1971 called for immediate relief and rehabilitation interventions. The GOB had to face a great task of renewal and reconstruction of the war torn economy after the liberation war. But the GOB had neither the capacity nor the appropriate institutional mechanism to address the volume and diversity of such enormous problems alone. This situation fostered the emergence of a large number of national and international NGOs in this area, which extended their helping hands to assist Bangladesh.

Dissatisfaction of Donor Agencies: One of the main reasons behind the rapid growth of NGOs in Bangladesh was the growing dissatisfaction of donor agencies with public organizations which were considered to be slow, rigid, hierarchic and inefficient in delivering public services (Aminuzzaman, 1993). On the other hand, support from bilateral and multilateral agencies for NGOs in Bangladesh steadily increased as a reflection of the perceived capacity and effectiveness of the NGOs working with the poor (ADB, 1992).

Unsuccessful Governmental Efforts: Many of the macro-policy-reforms, made by the GOB with a view to benefiting the poor, have failed to achieve desired success from time to time, due to the non-existence of appropriate institutions to execute such reforms at the grassroots level. But the NGOs succeeded here. Because of their small size and their concentration on a limited number of activities they were capable to deal creatively with situational demands. Thus, where the GOB failed to achieve the desired success, the NGOs played an important role in complementing the governmental efforts (Huda, 1987). Hence it is argued that the emergence of NGOs in Bangladesh is directly related to the failure of the governments to meet the hopes and aspirations of the people (Hasan, 1992).

An Increase in Foreign Aid: The mushrooming growth of NGOs in Bangladesh is partly due to the increase in foreign aid and humanitarian help to cope with many natural disasters that Bangladesh often experience. Foreign funding is sometimes considered as a lucrative opportunity to collect resources for the NGOs.

Successful in Sector Development: NGO activities have virtually grown into a movement in Bangladesh and eventually playing a very significant role in the nation's development process. They have assumed a vital role in certain sectors, such as, poverty alleviation, family planning, gender issues, primary health care, education, rural development, improvement of infrastructure and environment protection. In public sector these areas have received scanty attention and small resource allocation at the implementation level (Shelly, 1992).

5.5 Scope of NGO Operation

The world of NGOs in Bangladesh is inadequately documented (Shelly, 1992). As the existing literature on NGOs is scattered and incomplete, there are various estimates as to the total number of NGOs in Bangladesh. Recent World Bank study (1996) rightly makes a comment on the difficulty to determine the accurate number of NGOs in Bangladesh. It mentions that as there are multiple NGO registration authorities, it is very difficult to determine the precise number of active NGOs in the country.

Another source to determine the number of active NGOs is the database of the Association of Development Agencies in Bangladesh (ADAB), which is the apex body of local, national and international NGOs engaged in development activities in the country.

In 1987, 1200 NGOs participated in a conference organized by the Association of Development Agencies in Bangladesh (ADAB). Another estimate reveals that the number of NGOs including local clubs, voluntary organizations may be around 10,500. A map published by ADAB in 1987 shows that there are 294 NGOs in different thana of Bangladesh. ADB Report (1992) focused that in Bangladesh, over 13000 NGOs are registered. As of December 1995, there were about 754 NGOs as listed members. Though the members of NGOs are quite big, but a survey undertaken by the ADB reports upto November 1988 about two-thirds of the total were found to be inactive (ADB, 1989).

The increasing number of NGOs registered over the years with the NGO Affairs Bureau (NGOAB) is shown in Table 5.1. It clearly indicates that the number of national and international NGOs, which receive foreign funding, has recorded an enormous increase during little over one decade.

Table-5.1: Number of NGOs receiving Foreign Funding

Category	Year																	
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Foreign NGOs	89	99	111	125	124	129	134	141	149	152	164	169	171	178	184	187	1193	197
Foreign – Aided National NGO	293	395	523	600	683	790	887	1002	1102	1221	1354	1455	1499	1612	1690	1778	1846	1930
Total	382	494	634	725	807	919	1021	1143	1251	1373	1518	1624	1670	1790	1874	1965	2039	2127

Source: Complied from NGO Affairs Bureau database.

The NGOs interested in receiving funds from sources outside the country are required by law to register with NGOAB. As of August 2006, the number of foreign funded NGOs registered with the NGOAB was 2127.

Table 5.2 shows the growth of foreign funded NGOs in Bangladesh.

Table-5.2: Growth of Foreign Funded NGOs in Bangladesh

Period	Number of NGOs		
	Local	Foreign	Total
Through 1990	293	89	382
1990-91	395	99	494
1991-92	523	111	634
1992-93	600	125	725
1993-94	683	124	807
1994-95	790	129	919
1995-96	887	134	1021
1996-97	1002	141	1143
1997-98	1102	149	1251
1998-99	1221	152	1373
1999-2000	1354	164	1518
2000-2001	1455	169	1624
2001-202	1499	171	1670
2002-003	1612	178	1790
2003-2004	1690	184	1874
2004-2005	1778	187	1965
2005-2006	1846	193	2039
2006-2007 (Upto Feb'07)	1930	197	2127

Source: Complied from NGO Affairs Bureau database.

It is estimated that NGOs currently work in about 78 per cent of the villages in Bangladesh and about 24 million people benefit from their activities (World Bank, 1996).

In the absence of reliable record and information it is difficult to determine the exact coverage of NGO both in terms of region and target. ADAB sources reveal that NGO activities cover 335 'thana's which is 84 per cent of the total number of 'thana's in the country. However, this figure does not reflect the target group coverage, which might have been a good indicator of the extent of NGO coverage.

5.6 Functional coverage of NGOs

In Bangladesh, about 20,000 NGOs are working in different development fields. They have extended their activities that cover about 15.2 per cent of the total target group households in the country, which are mostly rural. From the NGO perspective, the highest priority are given to those problems that directly affect the poor (Huq, 1991). The NGO supported programs are mainly targeted to the poor and the disadvantaged that cover a wide range of activities. In 1994 the NGOs were operating in more than 50 per cent of the total villages of the country involving over 3.5 million families as beneficiaries (ADAB, 1994).

A review of NGO activities over the past three decades has identified the following major areas of the programs that are undertaken by different NGOs in Bangladesh.

Credit: With a view to reducing dependency on the usual moneylenders, NGOs arrange collateral-free credit for individual or collective enterprises. It is one of the most successful innovative efforts of development NGOs in Bangladesh. The model pioneered by Grameen Bank (GB) has established micro-credit as the most widely replicated anti-poverty program in Bangladesh. By 1995, cumulative disbursement by GB reached US$ 1.44 billion (World Bank, 1996).

Women development: In order to develop the socio-economic condition of the women, the NGOs emphasis on women development. Larger portion of credit and specific home based skill development viz. apiculture, silk production, embroidery, fishnet making, poultry and livestock rearing etc. are specially arranged for women.

Non-formal education: The NGOs perceive education as an integral and indispensable part of democracy and also consider it to be a basic human right. The NGOs have concentrated their efforts on eradicating illiteracy through functional education for both men and women. They have particularly been working on children's education programs,

experimenting not only on the means and methods of making education more appealing and useful for the poor, but also on minimizing the rate of drop-outs which is found to be alarmingly high in the governmental and other schools. As a human resource development strategy the NGOs provide non-formal primary education to the target children where the majority are girls.

Employment generation: The NGOs expand the opportunity of employment generation through small trading, rickshaw pulling, mulberry plantation for women, etc.

Income earning through enterprise development: The opportunity of income earning of the poor are expanded by the NGOs through enterprise development, such as, social forestry, fish culture, weaving, poultry and livestock rearing.

Capacity building in planning and management: In order to enhance the organizing skills and managerial capabilities of the poor in order to plan and implement their own projects, the NGOs undertake different activities at the grassroots level.

Occupational skill training: NGOs arrange traditional and new skills training for men and women, including crop cultivation, silk cocoon rearing, operation of irrigation equipment, para-professionals, etc.

Productive assets: The NGOs arrange ownership, control and management of productive assets for the poor that include, irrigation equipment, rice mills, power tillers, weaving machines etc.

Political participation: The NGOs are initiating such democratization processes aiming at restructuring the existing power-relations through the empowerment of the rural poor and development of their organization through a continuous process of education, awareness building and resource mobilization. Thus the organized poor can participate in the local decision-making process, such as, 'salish," local election and similar activities.

Health and nutritional knowledge: The NGOs consider that access to health care services is a basic human right. They have concentrated on developing a sustainable health care system at the grassroots. They have directed their efforts towards reducing the incidence of infant, child and maternal mortality through various programs ranging form health education and nutrition care to immunization and curative care. NGOs have already made remarkable contributions in nation-wide immunization program and also on the means of treating diarrhoea through homemade ORS.

Family planning: NGOs have made a significant contribution in family planning. They consider family planning as an integral part of health services. Most of the NGOs are involved in motivational activities and distribution of

contraceptives at the community level while a few have focused on reproductive health care and surgical contraceptive services.

Environment: In the recent days Bangladesh is considered to be an environmentally endangered region. The major environmental problems in Bangladesh include deforestation, desertification and damage to the genetic and aquatic environment. The NGOs undertake various programs to combat deforestation and to improve the conditions of deforestation. They have also exhibited notable success in afforestation programs, improving sanitation facilities and ensuring supply of safe drinking water through distribution of water-sealed latrines and tube-wells among the beneficiaries.

Mobilization of target group: The NGOs mobilize the target groups through village survey, individual contacts, preliminary group meetings, motivational work etc.

Consciousness raising: Participatory group discussion is facilitated through a trainer, and mass awareness is created.

Group formation: The NGOs encourage separate group formation by men and women with emphasis on the later.

Leadership development: Cadres are trained at training centers on leadership from within the group.

Access to government services: In order to give the poor access to the 'khas' land, health care facilities of the government and similar benefits, the NGOs make such demands to the local and other relevant governmental authorities.

Activate local administration: To make the local administration more responsive to the specific needs of the beneficiaries, the NGOs can activate the local administration by giving the poor adequate access to it.

Non-traditional agricultural extension: Some NGOs undertake unique programs of technology transfer involving innovative fertilizer use and pest management. These activities are complemented by training of local people and a national advocacy campaign. Some NGOs are developing an extended system of appropriate technology transfer for homestead agriculture.

Development of appropriate irrigation technologies: With a view to responding to the needs of the small and marginal farmers and also to promote crop diversification, NGOs developed low-cost irrigation technologies through research and experiment. For instance, the Rangpur Dinajpur Rural Services (RDRS) developed the treadle pump and a bamboo tube well; the Mennonite Central Committee (MCC) developed the Rower pump and the Mirpur Agriculture Workshop and Training service (MAWTS) developed the Tara pump to extract water from deeper

aquifers. From such endeavors there are currently more than 130,000 such technologies in operation in the country (Ministry of Agriculture, 1995).

Urban and rural development: For urban and rural development, the NGOs expand their activities through infrastructure development, slum development, low-cost housing, food for works program, construction and reconstruction of roads, bridges and culverts etc.

Development of children: Various programs are undertaken by the NGOs for the development of underprivileged children. These programs include motivation for breast feeding, providing health care services towards children, rehabilitation of orphan children, establishment of child rights etc.

Humanitarian and legal aid: The NGOs also provide humanitarian and legal aid to the disadvantaged section of the society. They help the distressed people by making them aware of different human and legal rights and also by providing necessary legal assistance.

Relief and Rehabilitation: At the time of natural disaster the NGOs also involve themselves in relief and rehabilitation programs. For a long time they have been playing a significant role in distributing relief among the distressed people along with the government.

5.7 Sources of funding of the NGOs

In the context of Bangladesh, the sources of NGO finance are classified into internal and external sources. The internal source refers to own funds of the NGOs. The external source refers to the funds received from outside which are again subdivided into local and foreign.

The following table shows the sources of NGO financing.

Table-5.3: Source of NGO Financing in Bangladesh

Internal Source	External Source	
	Local	Foreign
* Fees collected from members (e.g. interest on credit) * Service charges (e.g. for training) * Sale of publications * Transfer from commercial ventures * Others (e.g. earnings from investments and endowment funds) * Donations	GOB * Direct allocation * Project partnership, subcontract or subvention mechanism * PKSF - to small NGOs Private * Donations from public * Donation from businesses Credit * Borrowing from commercial banks * Bank funds for lending to NGOs	Through ERD * Bi and multilateral aid agencies Through NGOAB * Bi and multilateral aid agencies * International NGOs * Foreign private donations other * Offshore NGO funding * Offshore funding for NGO Training * Contract research * Embassy discretionary funds

Source: World Bank, 1996.

An estimate by Bhattacharya and Ahmed indicates that the total budget of the ten most important local and international NGOs in Bangladesh amounted to Tk. 189.42 million in 1990-91 and about 94 per cent of this amount came from foreign sources. Out of this, about 8 per cent accounted for health, family planning and sanitation; about 10 per cent for education and training and about 21 per cent for credit delivery. From 1990 to 98, the total amount of money approved for different NGO projects gradually increased to a significant level. The following table presents the amount of foreign funds released by the NGOAB during the period 1990 to 2007.

Table-5.4: Amount of foreign Funds Released through NGO Affairs Bureau

Period	Number of approved Projects	Amount approved (TAKA)	Amount released (TAKA)
Brought forward	8	14,892,279.00	217,169,685.00
F.Y.1990-91	464	6,341,680,229.33	4,264,080,522.19
F.Y.1991-92	549	11,484,379,404.67	4,865,522,844.98
F.Y.1992-93	626	15,995,368,116.77	7,828,230,680.78
F.Y.1993-94	581	12,600,960,786.60	6,840,362,530.43
F.Y.1994-95	579	17,627,496,279.39	8,380,189,748.61
F.Y.1995-96	702	14,672,397,699.40	10,372,077,588.53
F.Y.1996-97	746	10,259,187,684.80	10,410,941,131.80
F.Y.1997-98	705	8,524,660,229.00	9,360,719,019.00
F.Y.1998-99	1045	18,247,739,167.00	13,128,024,641.00
F.Y.1999-2000	776	13,897,601,871.00	9,846,902,185.00
F.Y.2000-2001	868	19,414,341,943.00	13,548,423,300.00
F.Y.2001-2002	746	17,022,431,138.00	11,872,074,573.00
F.Y.2002-2003	794	15,692,909,817.00	15,939,712,884.47
F.Y.2003-2004	939	28,219,719,991.00	17,845,182,750.00
F.Y.2004-2005	1193	18,204,270,908.58	15,619,009,844.00
F.Y.2005-2006	930	26,037,195,322.25	19,809,060,637.59
F.Y.2006-2007 (Upto Feb'07)	594	26,743,307,200.59	16,704,935,098.63

Source: NGO Affairs Bureau

The World Bank identified some additional sources of domestic funding for the NGOs (World Bank, 1996). These were:

Partnership program with the government: The collaborative programs through government subcontracts to NGOs are currently the most promising sources of finance.

Linking up with Banking Sector: For replenishing their revolving funds, a growing number of NGOs are resorting to the nationalized commercial and agricultural banks.

NGO Financing institution: With a view to scaling up the works of the NGOs in Bangladesh, the GOB has been financing micro-credit

programs of NGOs through a specialized agency, called Palli Kormo Shohayok Foundation (PKSF) that was established in 1990 as a non-profit company. Its main objective is to provide funds to its partner organizations, especially for credit programs, at a significantly lower interest rate.

Supplements from commercial ventures: Big and more established NGOs set up their own commercial ventures to earn profit. For instance, BRAC has set up commercial ventures like cold storage, printing press, garments factory, production and sale of handicrafts, dairy farming, etc.

Sale of services: Sale of services has emerged as a very promising source of income for NGOs, particularly for the big, established and specialized ones. The services that attract income most include training, consultancy and research.

5.8 Debate on the Role of NGOs

There has been considerable debate on the role of NGOs all over the world. To explain their role, different schools of thoughts have emerged. From the positive point of view, it is argued that the NGOs act as the local intermediaries efficiently to fulfill the 'organizational gap' (Esman and Uphoff, 1974; 1982; 1984; Uphoff and Cohen, 1979). Korten holds the same view. According to him, NGOs play the role of local intermediaries that mobilize the people to participate in government initiated programs (Korten, 1981). The NGOs are considered as a potential and effective medium, which can be utilized in delivering services to the rural areas of the developing countries. Thus NGOs are considered to be an alternative institutional framework through which the poor and socially disadvantaged groups can be reached bypassing the conventional public bureaucracy.

Wignaraja (1984), Rahman (1984, 1985) and Tilakaratna (1983, 1989) identified the NGOs as an emerging institutional framework for participatory development. According to them, the NGOs can play an important role as a participatory development agent at the local level in the social transformation process. They further argued that the NGOs can do this transformation through their economic programs, their efforts for human development and through establishment of social and economic rights of the target group. In the ultimate analysis, this model identified the NGOs as a catalyst for macro-level social transformation.

On the other hand, the hard-line analysts (Sobhan, 1987) rejected the idea that the NGOs can play a role in the social transformation of the developing countries. This group of critics acknowledged that the NGOs

are efficient mobilizers and deliver the goods and services effectively to the poor, but they discarded the claim that the NGOs play a role in social transformation. They argued that the only way to bring social transformation was through elimination of external dependence and by mobilizing internal resources that could make the concerned organizations relatively independent from the influence of state and their external allies.

The bilateral and multilateral donors have recently expressed their keen interest in the potential role of the NGOs and are interested to involve the NGOs directly in the developmental process of the developing countries. Such interest has contributed to the growth of another radical perspective on the role of the NGOs (Aminuzzaman, 1993). This school of observers argued that the NGOs were not politically strong enough and did not have any social commitment to bring out any change in the existing power structure; rather it claimed that the NGOs either knowingly or otherwise served the interest of international corporate capital (Chowdhury, 1987). These leftist thinkers argued that the NGOs represent yet another attempt by international agencies for the development of capitalism. They replicate the same problem as earlier, which is economic development without any structural changes, and thereby leading to a continuing reproduction of the system of inequality and exploitation. Such a strategy keeps the poor powerless (Sultan, 1990).

Yet another perspective of criticism comes from so-called 'target approach'. A northern donor sponsored study notes that:

> *... the actual target groups- the poor are unable to influence the planning and designing of projects and that power is concentrated largely in the hands of the organization's founder. When decisions are made, the poor are underrepresented, but when the actual work has to be done they are conspicuously strongly represented. It is quite difficult to find partners who have grass roots contacts with the target groups, and operate on a needs-oriented basis but who also establish rational operational dimensions, are organized well enough to elaborate realistic project plans and budgets and to keep proper records on expenditures....Well-organized NGOs are often not willing to concede donor institutions any role other than that of bankroller. They have learned how to get "partners" to compete for their favor in keeping with the principal of supply and demand. The depiction of the NGO landscape is problem-oriented and thus admittedly one-sided. Nevertheless, it does reflect the experience, especially with organizations that have recently discovered the "gender angle". While examining a professionally prepared application for funding for a project for the advancement of rural women in Bangladesh, for example, on site we found constellations of interest and power structures that made it appear more than questionable whether the assistance would end up benefiting the*

target groups. When any attempt is made to analyze the socio-economic background of the already organized women's groups in the project area, it turned out that many of the women did not belong to "the poor" in whose name funds were being solicited. Needs assessment revealed that the material and nonmaterial project components to be financed had little relation to the obvious needs of the poor. The budget presented, although in conformity with ministry-level requirements for approval, was inadequate for a realistic implementation of the activities purportedly envisaged (Novartis, Internet, http/foundation /banpovhtm).

In spite of these criticisms, the present world recognizes that the NGOs have gradually proved their efficiency and effectiveness in the providing relief materials, small credit, health and family planning services and many other services.

Though the NGOs play an active role in the development of Bangladesh, their contribution in this context has become a controversial issue. There exist two extreme polarized views, both positive and negative, which are depicted in the following discussion.

The Positive Views about the NGOs: From the positive point of view, one group of development professionals consider the NGOs as competent, potential and essential agents in the process of national development. This group of professionals and policy makers acknowledge that the NGOs are proficient to carry on benefits to the poor who are almost always ignored by governmental programs due to their disproportionate program planning and top-down implementation procedure.

Along with the government's successful efforts, the NGOs in Bangladesh• have been recognized among the most effective change agents in the world (World Bank, 1996). According to an estimate, 10 per cent of the total population of the country came under the direct influence of the NGOs (Khan and Bhasin, 1986).

The donors, frustrated and disillusioned by their attempts to work with conventional line agencies of the government, have supported the NGOs at the risk of displeasing the government with assumption that the NGOs are efficient and committed to deliver services with transparency and accountability. This redirection of donor funds has resulted in considerable expansion of the programs of the large NGOs as well as of their organizational capacity (Aminuzzaman, 1993). Empirical evidence indicates that a good number of NGOs have set standards of efficient delivery systems with substantial legitimacy from the community (Aminuzzaman and Nunn, 1993). According to a NORAD strategy paper, many NGOs have been more successful in channeling and providing services than governmental agencies and in reaching the rural poor (NORAD, 1993). Donor agencies perceive the NGO sector as a viable

complement, in some cases even an alternative (Aminuzzaman, 19993). Their impact and influence on society is clearly noticeable (Khan and Zafarullah, 1987).

The major contribution of the NGOs in Bangladesh perhaps lies in developing human potentials through building organizations of the poor. A recent World Bank Report (World Bank, 1996) mentioned that in Bangladesh, the NGOs have demonstrated impressive strength in their success of reaching the poor. The NGOs have also created a demand for public development services through consciousness raising process, which makes the delivery system of the GOB somewhat more effective than before. The contributions of the NGOs are visible in mobilizing destitute women and involving them in various income and employment generating activities. The group-based mobilization strategy of the NGOs has increased the community strength of the poor, especially in the area of social and institutional empowerment. The NGOs also play important roles in a democratic society. The role of the NGOs in assisting the poor in the development of people's organizations, in building the political participation of the poor and in seeking policy reforms that strengthen the role of people's organizations and open up the political process, is very important. BRAC, Grameen Bank, HEED-Bangladesh, CONCERN, MCC, CARE and RDRSs have significant contribution to the rural poor in enhancing their living standard.

In Bangladesh, the contributions of the NGOs to national development over the past decade need to be recognized. NGOs intend to complement the government efforts to improve the condition of the poor and work towards the development of workable concepts and models through field -level experiments, which the government could undertake at the national level. NGOs need support and cooperation from the government in their endeavor.

Beyond national perspective, the NGOs are universally recognized for their exceptional ability to reach the grassroots. In recent years, the contribution of the NGOs are considered to be significant for the poor, because these organizations help the poor to get organized and thus associate themselves with the development activities. The NGOs have earned some excellent reputation for their dedication, commitment and grassroots linkages (Khan, 1987). The NGOs also act as social catalysts. Their commitment to institution building and to revitalize the civil society is so significant that the major contribution of the NGOs in development can be viewed mainly as organizational rather than financial (Cernea, 1988). NGOs have increasingly become able to attract funding from international donors.

The Negative Views about the NGOs: The researchers who analyze the contribution of NGOs from negative point of view, consider the endeavors of NGOs as repetitious and their activities as largely insignificant (Islam and Hussain, 1993). They raise questions about their accountability. According to them, the NGOs are accountable neither to the government nor to their clients, but merely to their funding sources.

It is also argued that the NGOs programs leave out the extreme poor which is a significant portion of its potential clients. The NGOs face a major challenge in this respect. The functional coverage of NGOs are considered fragmented as the number of poor people covered in a particular area, is dependent on the service capacity of the NGOs rather than on the actual needs of the area. The NGOs attempt to improve the lives of their beneficiaries rather than improving the overall poverty situation in a locality, which divides the poor of one locality into beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries.

Some observers (Mohammad, 1988) identify NGOs as a new agent for expanding neo-imperialism. They consider that the activities of the NGOs are dedicated to serve the interest of the donor countries and agencies. Particularly the left-wing thinkers argue that the western donors fulfill their interest through the NGOs, which establish a patron-client relationship that increase dependency and hinder social revolution.

The big NGOs receive the major share of foreign donations where the small NGOs are deprived of foreign aid. This imbalance among the big and small NGOs is also raised as a criticism. Besides, the personnel of the NGOs are blamed for nepotism, corruption, misuse of power and misappropriation of money.

In addition to that, the NGOs in certain cases are working parallel to the Government without having any coordination with the Government, which creates duplication of activities and wastage of money.

The NGOs importance has made it natural that they have also become an issue of public debate. During the early 1990s' the then Secretary of Social Welfare of Government of Bangladesh in an interview noted:

> *There must be some motive behind offering such aid and in my opinion they are not always honest. People in Bangladesh will not give up their culture and religion...some beliefs are purchased with money,... Sale of religion is not social services, and conversion to another religion should not be a precondition to having social services.*

He also argued that:

> *When NGOs start accumulating wealth through their own projects then they are not different from multinational companies. And what is the guarantee that the money generated by the project will be distributed among the distressed? Who will supervise it? Such NGOs should instead*

be registered by 'the Registrar of the Joint Company"? Why should the laws be relaxed for the foreigners who work here? (Dhaka Courier, May, 11-17,1990).

However, the GOB-NGO relation has improved considerably over the years, and particularly since the political change towards a democratic set up in the country since 1991. The GO-NGO collaboration had increased in spheres of relief work, health and family planning, non-formal education, environment and micro-credit. In the past, NGOs have important roles in policy areas of health, non-formal education, micro-credit and environment.

5.9 NGOs as Perceived by the Fundamentalist in Bangladesh

During recent years the NGOs in Bangladesh have been facing a noticeable of resistance from the fundamentalist, especially in the rural areas. The fundamentalists directly resist the activities of the NGOs. They complain that the NGOs convert the poor into Christian by taking the advantage of their vulnerable situation. The empowerment and employment generating activities of the NGOs, particularly for the women, are criticized and resisted by this group. They accuse the NGOs of hurting the religious feelings of the Muslims by encouraging and mobilizing the women to step into the outside world from home, which obstruct the "purda" custom of Islam. Fundamentalism is a growing force in Bangladesh that considers the NGO activities as anti-Islamic and publicly demands ban on NGO operation (Karim, 1994).

The trend of attacking NGOs, particularly by Islamic forces, has not decreased but rather increased. Mostly the larger NGOs like BRAC, PROSIKA are the target of such criticism. The fundamentalists argue that "BRAC is introducing atheism in its non-formal education program. The NFPE of BRAC through its schools is teaching against Allah and spoiling innocent children" (*Daily Inqilab*, 22/11/93).

In 1994, BRAC's NFPE program came under serious attack from fundamentalists in rural areas. They attacked and burned down a number of BRAC schools. They also up-rooted hundreds of trees that were planted along the roadside by the NGO (*The Daily Bhorer Kagaj*, 16/1/94).

5.10 Conclusion

The NGOs in Bangladesh are recognized as a very powerful and effective agent for positive social change. The NGOs are responsive to the needs

and problems of the beneficiaries at the grassroots level and act as catalyst for positive social change. Given their greater contact with, and knowledge of, the local community, they are more likely than the government to have the interest and skills to design and implement development projects and programs suitable for the target population. The NGOs are providing almost all-essential services to the disadvantaged segment of the society, most of which fall within the broad responsibilities of the government. From this point of view the intellectuals and development thinkers (Paul, 1991; Brown and Korten, 1991) identifies the state, the market and NGOs as different but complementary sectors.

The NGOs share the important common goals with the Government, which include poverty alleviation, human resource development, women's development, environmental protection etc. The NGOs' strategies and their contributions to social development are accepted by the Government, especially when they provide supplementary service.

Bangladeshi NGOs are known all over the world for their innovation. The successful models in micro-credit, non-formal education and in delivering primary health care are being replicated in other developing countries. Effective implementation of NGO programs at the community level could have more sustainable impact if they have solid consistent and proactive support from GOB (World Bank, 1996). With a view to utilizing the potential supplementary services from the NGOs, the GOB needs to reorient its approach to the NGOs from one of control and monitoring to one of support, facilitation, encouragement and collaboration. The present situation stresses that improved collaboration between the GOB and the NGOs is one of the most important needs of the time.

Chapter 6
The Legal and Regulatory Framework for the NGOs in Bangladesh

6.1 Introduction

In order to direct the operations and the funding arrangements of the NGOs working in Bangladesh, the Government of Bangladesh applies a range of statutory and administrative regulations towards the NGOs. A detailed structure exists for NGO registration, prior review, project approval procedures and utilization of foreign funds by the NGOs.

Such regularity framework is necessary with a view to ensuring the proper utilization of foreign funding of the NGO sector. One of the main reasons for this regulatory framework is the Government's concern to monitor the flow of foreign funds going to the NGOs. Besides to keep the macro-economic development in track, GOB has introduced the regulatory framework.

The present chapter highlights on the legislation that governs the NGOs working in Bangladesh. It also focuses on the circumstances of the laws and attempts to assess the relevance of the legal framework to the present-day situation. The present chapter also focuses on Government NGO Consultative Council, its objectives, the establishment of NGO Affairs-Bureau and its functional responsibilities.

6.2 Elements of the Legal Framework

In Bangladesh, the legal framework for the NGOs has two parts: (1) Laws under which the NGOs are incorporated and given a legal identity; and (2) Laws regulating the relationship of the NGOs with GOB. It is not mandatory for an NGO to register under any of these laws so long as they don't seek a legal identity, or solicit any assistance from the Government. Naturally most NGOs desire and seek a legal identity.

Laws for incorporation: The following laws provide a framework for the NGOs to exist under a legal identity with a recognized governance structure. Development NGOs are registered under these laws:

The Societies Registration Act, 1861: The administrators of the Indian Empire introduced this act .The law sets out ways in which a voluntary organization should be set up, managed, and maintain control of its accounts. Some of the oldest NGOs in Bangladesh are registered under this act by the Registrar of Societies within the Ministry of Commerce. The act is still valid in Bangladesh, although many NGOs report that the Registrar has discontinued registering of NGOs under it, pending a review of the whole legal environment of the NGOs which was being undertaken by the Ministry of Commerce. The range of activities allowed to a society reflects the interests and charitable ethos of a Victorian era in the 1860s and recent laws and regulations continue to borrow from this act.

The Trust Act, 1882: This law is created with a view to accommodating private trusts without disturbing or modifying the already existing Muslim and Hindu laws for religious trusts. It allowed for the creation of an organization where a person or persons had some property that they wanted to entrust to a second party to be used on behalf of a third party. This law is also valid in Bangladesh. This act is occasionally used by NGOs. It is administered by the Registrar of Trusts (a magistrate) who has the power to register deeds of trust, without involving any government ministries. The advantage of registering under the Thrust Act is that its provisions allow autonomy as long as the Trustees honor the terms and conditions of the Deed of Trust. Gonoshasthya Kendra-a very famous Bangladeshi NGO is registered under this act.

Cooperative Societies Act, 1925: This law was created specifically for the specialized form of commercial entity. Some NGOs consider their operations as falling within this category, though it is not used by development NGOs.

The Companies Act, 1913 (amended in 1994): With a view to making a legal form and status available to private trading companies, this act was created. There are provisions for registering non profit companies. Some NGOs (such as Ubinig) have registered under this act. PKSF and Horticulture for Export (HORTEX) are the recent examples of private foundations, which are founded under this act. This act provides a very strong legal identity. There are clear directives for annual reports and annual accounts to be produced. The Registrar of Joint Stock Companies under the Ministry of Commerce is the registration authority.

The above acts enable organizations to be set up with a management structure and a legal status.

6.3 Laws and Ordinances for Regulating Association with the Government

The following laws and ordinances have been introduced to compel the NGOs to register with the government agencies, irrespective of their legal status. The following laws and ordinances have specific bearings on the issues of GO-NGO relationship:

The Voluntary Social Welfare Agencies (Regulation and Control) (VSW) Ordinance, 1961: This Ordinance was promulgated by the then Pakistan's martial law regime with a view to controlling the NGOs through mandatory registration. The ordinance required that every organization that sought to render voluntary welfare services under specific areas must be registered with the then Pakistan Social Welfare Department. A large number of NGOs are registered under this ordinance. The registration procedures under this ordinance are simple. The 1961 ordinance allows the Government to interfere with the governance structure of the NGOs. As the registration body, the Department of Social Welfare (DSW) is authorized to suspend the governing body of a NGO without any right of appeal. But without the approval of DSW the governing body of a NGO cannot dissolve the NGO.

The Foreign Donation (Voluntary Activities Regulation (FDR) Ordinance 1978) (amended in 1982): After the war of liberation, a large number of NGOs were emerged with a view to offering relief and reconstruction assistance in Bangladesh. Many local NGOs have received foreign donation for undertaking their activities. Besides a number of foreign NGOs have been working in Bangladesh. The purpose of this ordinance is to regulate the receipts and expenditure of foreign donations for voluntary activities.

'Foreign Donation' means a donation, contribution or grant of any kind made for any voluntary activity in Bangladesh by any foreign government or organization or a citizen of a foreign state includes, any donation made for any voluntary activity in Bangladesh by a Bangladeshi citizen living or working abroad.

The Foreign Contribution (Regulation) Ordinance, 1982, Ordinance No XXXI of 1982: On 24th March 1982, the then Chief Martial Law Administrator promulgated this ordinance to regulate receipt of foreign contributions. "Foreign Contribution" according to the ordinance meant any donation, grant or assistance, whether in cash or kind. The rules pertaining to this ordinance required NGOs to seek prior government approval each time they received a foreign contribution.

6.4 Establishment of the Government NGO Consultative Council

In order to provide a forum for open dialogue between the Government and the NGOs, GOB has established the Government NGO Consultative Council (GNCC) by a Gazette notification, dated 17th October, 1996. The objectives of establishing the GNCC are:

i) To increase mutual understanding and cooperation between GOB and the NGOs for the overall development of the country.

ii) To identify and discuss issues which impede GO-NGO cooperation and develop an improved policy and institutional environment for GO-NGO Cooperation.

iii) To suggest modalities for greater involvement of NGOs in national development.

iv) To propose measures to simplify and improve the regulatory system for creating an enabling environment for governing NGO activities.

v) To suggest measures to strengthen the monitoring and evaluation capacity of the NGOAB partner NGOs with a view to ensuring accountability and transparency for development assistance funds.

Membership of the GNCC: The council has a maximum of 23 members, which include six representatives nominated by the government from concerned Ministries/Divisions and eight highest level appropriate NGO representatives nominated by the ADAB. The Chairman of the council is appointed by the government. The Director-General of the NGOAB is the ex-officio member-secretary to this council. The remaining seven positions are to be filled in according to the advice of the council. Representatives are appointed for two years and no individual can serve more than two consecutive terms.

6.5 Regulatory Institution: The NGO Affairs Bureau (NGOAB)

Gradually the NGOs expand their activities in Bangladesh. They play an important role in the context of national development. GOB also views the activity of the NGO as a useful contribution to the national development. GOB welcomes NGOs' activities in various fields, where government activities are not adequate.

With a view to attaining optimal impacts, the NGOs require collective coordination. Because only well-coordinated NGO activities could supplement and complement government's development programs quite meaningfully. On behalf of GOB, the responsibility of coordination of NGO activities is assigned to the NGOAB.

Previously foreign NGOs and NGOs receiving foreign funds, working in Bangladesh had to apply to different government agencies for registration and various approval and permissions. Clearance from committees at various stages and inter-ministerial consultations often caused delays in processing their cases. Cumbersome bureaucratic procedures not only increased paper work for the NGOs, but also resulted in the loss of substantial funds due to delays in the process. The 1980s witnessed a huge backlog of projects pending government approval (World Bank, 1996). Due to inadequate manpower and lack of a central body in the past, GOB could not also monitor the NGO activities properly. As a result, activities of some NGOs resulted in wastage of resources and brought the NGO activity under criticism in general.

In order to streamline the procedure, to provide one-stop service to these NGOs and to achieve better coordination and effective use of resources, GOB has created a new attached department under the President's secretariat's Public division in May, 1990 in the name of NGOAB. Now NGOAB is working under Prime Minister's secretariat. Since then the GOB has assigned NGOAB all responsibilities to coordinate NGOs under the 1978 Foreign Donation (Voluntary Activities) Regulation Ordinance and the 1982 Foreign contribution (Regulation) ordinance. This bureau is headed by a Director General.

Functions of NGOAB: The principal aim of NGOAB is to ensure quality performance of the NGO sector and its accountability to the state.

The NGOAB has been entrusted with the following responsibilities:

1) Administer laws relating to NGOs in Bangladesh;
2) Provide one-stop service to NGOs for registration and project processing:
3) Provide secretarial service to the advisory committee for NGO Affairs;
4) Approval of project submitted by the NGOs and release of funds;
5) Approve appointment and tenure of services of expatriate officials and consultants;
6) Review/examine/comments on the reports and statements submitted by NGOs;
7) Coordinate, monitor, inspect and evaluate NGO operations;
8) Identify and approve Chartered Accountants for auditing NGO accounts;
9) Collection of fees/service charges from the NGOs;
10) Carry out field level inspections of NGO income and expenditure;

11) Maintain liaison with the NGOs and donor agencies;
12) Examination/Disposal of reports on the functioning of NGOs;
13) Examine and take necessary action on the basis of reports on NGO programs;
14) Approve receipt of one-time contributions by NGOs;
15) Handle any other matter relating to NGOs;

A World Bank Report (1996) comments on the establishment of NGOAB that it has produced significant improvement from the past. Because NGOs don't have to pursue their cases with different government organizations any more. It enables the NGOs to obtain their registration clearance, approval and permission through a single agency of government within a specific time frame.

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter highlights the existing laws, ordinances, rules and regulations applicable to the NGO operations in Bangladesh. Many laws, acts had their origin in British colonial period. There are also some new acts. ordinances that are applied to the activities of the NGOs working in Bangladesh. These have created the legal and regulatory framework for the NGOs in this country. A sound legal and regulatory framework is very much essential for the NGO sector that ensures the accountability and transparency of the NGOs. With a view to coordinating the activities of the foreign funded NGOs, GOB established NGOAB. The government controls the activities of NGOs, which receive foreign donation through NGOAB. Besides, GOB has also established GNCC as a forum for open dialogue between GOB and NGOs. The GNCC works for increasing mutual understanding and cooperation between GOB and the NGOs.

Effectiveness of NGOAB has already being noted by NGOs in comparison with the days when the Planning Commission and other line agencies used to control, regulate and approve NGO activities. NGOAB as a 'one-stop' unit has indeed facilitated the program development and approval activities of the NGOs. Moreover, it has also strengthened the financial accountability of the NGOs that receive foreign support or donation.

Chapter 7
Government-NGO Collaboration: Regional Focus

7.1 Introduction

NGOs are considered by development thinkers, researchers and practitioners as a new as well as efficient actor to achieve the goals of development (Korten, 1988, 1991; Paul, 1991; Farrington and Bebbington ed., 1993). The NGOs of the third world are identified as alternative development agent (Garilao, 1987). They call the NGO sector as "growth sector"(Brodhead, 1987). Gradually the NGOs have been achieving the worldwide recognition of their contribution towards development. Governments of developing countries are also aware of what the NGOs can contribute to national development. At the same time, the NGOs are also realizing the fact that in order to scale up their activities at the national level there is no alternative but to involve the government. The limitations of public sector as well as the recognized contribution of the NGO's bring an opportunity for GO-NGO collaboration, because balanced development is a complex undertaking that can not be achieved by any single sector. Collaboration across sectors is an attractive means of using the special capacities of different sectors in development (Brown and Korten, 1991).

This chapter highlights on GO-NGO collaboration, especially on different opinions, different types and prescribed mechanism of collaboration. Advantages as well as the problems of GO-NGO collaboration are also discussed here. Different collaboration models, which are in operation in different South Asian and African countries, are highlighted.

7.2 Government (GO)- NGO Relationship: A Love-Hate Relationship

Hernandez (1987) identified GO-NGO relationship as a "love-hate relationship". It is simply impossible to generalize the GO-NGO relationship even in one country. It varies enormously from country to country and from regime to regime. The reason for this is the different orientation of NGOs towards government and vice versa. That's why, the GO-NGO relationships are diverse and country specific. NGOs in India drive much support and encouragement from government; they are

registered with the government and tend to work in close collaboration with it. NGOs in Africa on the other hand, also acknowledge the frequent need to work closely with GOs or at least avoid antagonizing the authorities. But most NGOs from Latin America have functioned historically as an opposition to GO (Farrington and Bebbington ed., 1993).

In some situations, the NGOs are viewed as clear opponents of the GO and relations are no less than hostile. In other cases, however, GO and NGOs share similar goals and work closely with each other. Between the two extremes, there are governments, which may tolerate the NGO sector without being particularly supportive, or which may ally them with certain NGOs while opposing others. Given the enormous heterogeneity of the NGO sector, a government's relationship with any individual organization depends greatly upon that organization's specific activities, purpose, ideology, institutional or personal ties (Maleha, 1995).

In some South-Asian countries, such as, India, Bangladesh, Nepal and Srilanka, there are two sets of opinions about the collaboration between government and NGOs (Fernandez, 1987). In this context he focused on two opposite perspectives of collaboration. From one perspective, GO-NGO collaboration is discouraged on the argument that NGOs should not collaborate formally in programs sponsored by government and should not receive funds directly from it. Because, such collaboration can damage NGOs' independence and demoralize their voluntarism. From the other perspective, GO-NGO collaboration is encouraged with the argument that NGOs have a role to play in government programs aimed at poverty alleviation, a role, which is essential to the success of the programs. Since the NGOs need fund the government should provide resources directly to the NGOs to enable them to fulfill their objectives.

Governments however, have their own spectrum of orientations towards NGOs. Governments also vary in their ability to enforce a preferred orientation. There are some governments that might like to constrain NGO activities. But they cannot do it simply because of lack of the political and administrative strength to do so (Bratton, 1989). Under dictatorial regimes that have banned opposing political parties and suppressed unions and other groups, the NGOs may represent the only viable form of political opposition. In such situations, some NGOs may undertake relatively innocuous welfare-oriented, service-oriented projects as a protective cover for more political activities.

In many Asian countries, the NGOs have demonstrated substantial adeptness in building alliances with those in GO who are both influential

and sympathetic towards NGOs. Alliance building is often a conscious political strategy aimed at securing political protection for the NGOs and their activities. With time the alliance may become the basis of a coalition advocating constructive policy changes to which the NGO and the concerned officials have a mutual commitment.

On the other hand, NGOs' orientations towards government also vary enormously. At one end of the spectrum of NGO-orientation towards government are those NGOs that are created by government to serve its interest.

Other NGOs at the same pro-government end of the spectrum act largely as nonprofit sub-contractors to government. At the opposite end of the spectrum, there are NGOs that oppose any contact or collaboration with government. Most of these NGOs consider government as corrupt and inefficient beyond any hope and want to maintain distance with it. But when opportunities arise that are consistent with their social commitment, most NGOs avail themselves to work with government (Korten, 1991).

So, it is difficult to provide a general guideline for the GO-NGO relationship, but there is definitely a need for such collaboration. There are two sets of opinions about the GO-NGO collaboration (Garilao, 1987; Fernandez, 1987). One group holds that the NGOs should not collaborate formally in programs sponsored by governments and should not receive funds directly from the governments, because that would hamper their independence and altruism. This group includes some NGOs as well as some government officials. The other group holds that the NGOs have a role to play in government programs aimed at poverty alleviation, a role which is essential to the success of these programs and which the government cannot perform alone. Some NGOs need funds, which the government should provide directly to the NGOs to enable them to achieve their objectives. The government should be inclined to involve the NGOs in the process of development, because "NGOs are one institutional mechanism for promoting beneficiary participation. By working through, and investing in organizations of, disadvantaged people they often contribute to efficient, effective, equitable and sustainable development" (Bhatnagar, 1991).

As external agents of change, the NGOs are able to communicate the needs and aspirations of the local communities to government agencies (Sultan, 1993). A significant new development is the pattern of interaction emerging between the NGOs and other actors on the development scene. In a number of developing countries, the NGOs have begun to work with governments, shedding the traditionally adversarial mode of operation

between the two. On the international scene, bilateral and multilateral donors are increasingly co-operating with the NGOs and they are also listening to the views and advice to the NGOs on development issues and donors and the NGOs are working together on specific projects funded by the donors (Paul, 1991). The co-operative efforts between donors and the NGOs create new opportunities for GO-NGO collaboration. The public and the NGO sector "have different but complementary strengths"(Paul, 1991). The fruitful collaboration between the two sectors could make a dynamic and dynastic change in the developmental perspective. By recognizing the potential advantages, which would come out as a result of such collaboration, the well-known donor agencies like the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank have all along explored ways to work with the NGOs and to facilitate co-operative efforts between developing country governments and the NGOs (Paul, 1991).

In Asia, the NGOs are inclined to seek out opportunities for collaboration with GOs (Brown and Korten, 1991). Governments are becoming more and more open to collaborative relationship with the NGOs (Farrington and Bebbington ed., 1993). Citing the EXITE's NGO Work-Strategy Discussion paper, Bhatnagar stresses that improved collaboration between GO and NGOs is important for the effectiveness of the development process (Bhatnagar, 1991).

GO-NGO collaboration has become a powerful strategy in reaching out to the poor and thus become able to have multiplied the impact on the recent development scenario. The governments are reckoning with the fact that they have to incorporate in their operational modalities the features, which account largely for NGO success. GOs can often get the benefits of scaling up the programs of the NGOs through creating linkages and collaborative arrangements (Paul, 1991). On the other hand, the NGOs are increasingly recognized that they cannot operate their programs in isolation from the extensive government delivery mechanism (Bhattacharia and Ahmed, 1995).

7.3 Collaboration: The Dynamic Process of Development

Throughout the developing world, opportunities are growing for the NGOs to work together with GOs in helping people improve the quality of their lives (World Bank, 1990). It is more openly recognized that in certain circumstances especially in Latin America and in some South Asian countries, where the state was extremely weak, deliberately ignored the needs of the poor or had unacceptable political agenda, the NGOs have been doing the bulk of development work at the grassroots (Farrington and

Bebbington ed., 1993). But it is not possible for the NGOs to do all the development activities of a country without involving the government. The time has come for GO-NGO collaboration, because GO-NGO collaboration would essentially bring the process of institutional dialectics in operation by smashing the comparative advantages of the one with the other, through which scarce resources can be utilized properly. In the ambit of development climate, GO-NGO collaboration appears as of crucial importance (Sultan, 1990). More specifically, the NGOs are considered to be strong in identifying local people's needs, taking rapid decisions on how to respond to the local needs and support local initiatives. Government has a potentially complementary set of advantages in that it controls major policy instruments, possesses a broad revenue base and has the capacity of large scale infra-structural investment and address complex technical issues (Farrington and Bebbington ed., 1993).

Collaboration, either bilateral or multilateral, implies temporal accomplishment of jointly agreed tasks on a turnkey basis, where question of continued institutional bondage is not important (Bhattacharya and Ahmed, 1995). Similarly, an UN study highlighted on GO-NGO collaboration as a harmonious and constructive approach to operate in a synergetic manner while maintaining their mutual independence (UNESCAP, 1989). Farrington and Bebbington (1993) called the GO-NGO collaboration as a linking mechanism between the state and the NGO sector. Montgomery (1988) refers to GO-NGO collaboration as bureaucratic pluralism in which the state aims to co-opt NGOs in such a way as to counteract the erosion of public trust in GO and help the GO to achieve its policy goals.

7.4 GO-NGO Collaboration: The Rational

A strong collaborative relationship is conceived only where both parties share common goals; where the government has a positive social agenda and NGOs are effective in their activities. Collaboration does not mean a subcontracting of placid NGOs, but a genuine partnership between NGOs and the GO to work on a problem facing the country or a region based on mutual respect, acceptance of autonomy, independence and pluralism of NGO opinions and positions.

The rational for GO-NGO collaboration lies on the following grounds:

Collaboration ensures poor's participation; Participation of the poor in the development process requires sensitization of the poor through consciousness raising and functional education resulting in their capacity

building. Only then they become a strong pressure group and become able to exert their rights and gain access to resources and different services. NGOs have proven their ability to demonstrate how the capacity of the poor can be developed. GO-NGO collaboration ensures the accessibility of the poor to the public services.

Collaboration creates demand among the poor for public services: Many government programs are supply-oriented, e.g. the immunization program, credit delivery program, etc. The poor are mostly deprived of these supplies, because they fail to make effective demand as well as there exists no suitable receiving mechanism at the grassroots level. NGOs can help the poor in this respect by organizing them, by developing their awareness and by creating their income opportunities through various employment generation programs. NGOs can help the poor to make effective demand for public services. On the other hand, NGOs can help the government organizations by sharing their experience and local knowledge at the grassroots level. Thus, GO-NGO collaboration ensures public services to the poor.

Collaboration ensures utilization of knowledge and ability of both the counterparts: Through some highly successful programs, the NGOs in the developing countries have acquired rich experience and meaningful insights in program planning, implementation, training, monitoring and evaluation of the programs. As a result, GO-NGO collaboration creates an opportunity for the government institutions to utilize the experience of the NGOs and at the same time it creates the opportunity for the NGOs to expand their programs on large scale.

Collaboration ensures the expansion and replication of successful programs: Though NGOs in the developing countries have the experience of running some highly successful programs, they can hardly be able to replicate these programs on large scale basis because of their limits of institutional capacity and resource constraints. GO-NGO collaboration ensures the GO support towards the successful programs of the NGOs, which help and speed up replication and expansion of the successful programs at the national level.

Collaboration ensures optimum utilization of scarce resources: Given the absolute resource constraints of the country, it is very much essential to avoid duplication of development efforts in order to ensure wider coverage and extended impact. GO-NGO collaboration for planned expansion of the development activities becomes very helpful in this respect. Such collaboration may help to maximize the use of scarce resources.

Collaboration creates a new working system in the development scenario: GO-NGO collaboration may contribute towards the emergence of a system of organizations having functional specialization which will ensure removal of overlap, foster mutual help and assistance, supplement each others' work and facilitate resolution of conflicts.

Collaboration ensures pluralism: In pursuing the goals of national development an important and essential factor is pluralism. Along with the GO, the NGO sector is considered as an important part of a pluralistic society. GO-NGO collaboration promotes pluralism which help expand the growth of NGO sector to share important common goals with the GO.

Collaboration ensures the utilization of the potentials of all sectors: With a view to attaining national development, it is very much essential to utilize the potentials and advantages of all the sectors. The government has the responsibility for determining the general policy directions for the national development, but it is not possible for the GO alone to bring about sustainable improvements in the lives of the poor. The extensive network of NGOs, especially at the grassroots level, can help the government tackle the nation's vast development needs.

Collaboration ensures cost effectiveness: The high cost effectiveness of NGOs projects is often quoted as another reason for GO-NGO collaboration. This is primarily true in cases where NGOs have built up local infrastructures. And this can be an advantage for the government agencies in minimizing their cost through collaborative work with those NGOs.

7.5 Advantages of Collaboration

Both government and NGOs can have various advantages from their mutual collaboration. Through collaboration, the government can benefit from the effectiveness of the NGO approach in reaching the target group, while the NGOs can benefit by scaling up their programs as well as impacts.

The following table presents the mutual benefits:

Table-7.1: Mutual Benefits of GO-NGO Collaboration

Benefits that are enjoyed by the NGOs	Benefits that are enjoyed by the GO.
1. Collaboration gives access to research expertise and technological resources in the GO.	1. Collaboration gives access to the technical innovations and effective strategies of NGOs that have made NGO- programs successful.
2. Collaboration paves the way for scaling up NGO-generated innovative programs and strategies through the GO machinery.	2. Collaboration enables the GO institutions to use NGOs for the implementation of public policy.
3. Collaboration smoothen and increases NGOs' access to GO agencies.	3. Through collaboration the GOs can train its field level staff by the NGOs to motivate and innovate participatory people-oriented approach.
4. NGOs can advocate and motivate GO staff to be more people oriented.	4. GOs can make the NGOs increasingly oriented to state's demands as contractor.
5. NGOs can use the collaboration process as a mean to exert pressure over GO agencies and/or to urge them to re-orient their policies.	5. Through collaboration GO can create a platform of GO-organized NGOs (GONGOs) and then award them sub-contracts.

7.6 Preconditions of Collaboration

GO-NGO collaboration is a dynamic process. Certain critical factors are identified as preconditions of successful collaboration:

1) Openness and willingness for collaboration from both sides;
2) Mutual trusts and respect;
3) Favorable government policy;
4) Favorable socio-economic and political environments;
5) Acceptance of autonomy and independence;
6) Pluralism of NGO opinions and positions;
7) Adequate channels of institutional communication;
8) Mutual learning process, training and support;
9) Transparency of activities, and
10) Accountability of concerned government and NGO staff.

7.7 Types of collaboration

To scale up their successful programs, the NGOs of developing countries realize the fact that it is very much essential to interact with the Government. In the development arena, the emerging pattern of interaction between the government and the NGOs is a new, essential and significant phenomenon. In a number of developing countries, the NGOs have begun to work with governments, shedding the traditionally

adversarial mode of operation between the two sectors. The new relationships and transactions can potentially be beneficial (Paul, 1991).

In some instances, the NGOs may reach agreement with the government under which the NGOs assume responsibility for the delivery of certain services, possibly with public funding or for the implementation of certain aspects of a program. For example, in the Philippines, the NGOs play an important role in implementing the government's land reform and social forestry programs. The NGOs may also work with the government on the introduction of new services or on helping develop capabilities to reach less accessible elements of the population (Korten, 1991). In Srilanka, for example, Helen Keller International assisted the Ministry of Health in introducing a program of cataract care as part of the national rural health service. In advocacy and public education efforts, the NGOs almost invariably involve the government. The NGOs in Indonesia, for example, work with the Ministry of Population and Environment on environmental policy and public education efforts (Korten, 1991).

There may be different types of collaboration, which can take place between the government and the NGO. The most common types of collaboration are:

Co-financing: The most common and important form of collaboration between the GO and the NGOs is the co-financing of development projects, whereby under criteria which vary from country to country, governments usually contribute on a fifty-fifty basis. In several countries representatives of the NGOs are associated in the selection of projects to be co-financed.

One-way financial flow: Collaboration can also entail a one-way financial flow from a NGO to an official agency. On the other hand, collaboration also takes place where government provides financial help to NGO projects.

Contract/Subcontract: Another common form of collaboration is for governments to contract/subcontract to the NGOs to serve as executing or implementing agents for official aid activities.

Joint Implementation: Joint implementation is a partnership arrangement where the NGOs are involved either as co-financier or joint executing agency with the government.

Consultation: The NGOs who work closely with low-income communities or have relevant knowledge, may serve on GO-NGO task forces or work as consultants to the government.

Successful linkage: The NGOs can serve as a successful link between the official planners of a project and its beneficiaries, for example, the

NGOs do the same job in the Bolivian Urban Development project.

Intermediary: In project implementation stage, the NGOs can regularly play an intermediary role through channeling funds and information to a project's beneficiaries and providing feedback to the government agencies.

Besides the collaboration can take place at different stages and in different ways. The stages and types of GO-NGO collaboration are:

a) *Project identification and design:* During this stage, the NGOs can cooperate with the government by providing information and data on the intended beneficiaries. The NGOs can work as its consultant. They can help the GO by funding government projects and programs. By providing insights on the social dynamics of an intended project area and by providing environmental impact assessment facilities for intended projects, the NGOs can complement government's activities. The NGOs can supplement government's activities by providing successful technological and institutional innovation by cooperating in the local level comprehensive development planning. The NGOs can also influence government policies and programs by advocacy.

On the other hand, the government can co-operate with the NGOs by encouraging them to work with the government. By minimizing restrictions on the NGO projects and by providing a flexible process for project and funding approval, government can help the NGOs to extend their activities. By offering incentives for undertaking programs in the governmental priority areas and in remote areas of the country government can encourage the NGOs to undertake various complementary and supplementary programs.

b) *Project / program implementation:* At this stage, the NGO can collaborate with the government as financial intermediary. The NGOs can also help GO by acting as a supplier of technical knowledge. The NGOs can also work as an adviser of the beneficiaries on resource mobilization and as an organizer of the local communities to organize them to use project facilities. The NGOs can also work as a training institute for government personnel. By communicating with the government, the NGOs can also act as a negotiator for other resource- poor NGOs. By undertaking complementary programs to the government financed projects and by providing better and efficient networking, both horizontal and vertical, the NGOs can help the government to render better services to the poor.

On the other hand, by providing grants or loans to encourage complementary and supplementary projects and by building communication and transportation facilities with and within the remote

areas. GO can help the NGOs a lot to make their programs successful and also successfully scale-up their programs. By encouraging the NGOs to involve in experimental pilot programs with specific government agencies, the government can encourage collaboration with the NGOs.

The World Bank (WB) identify the NGOs 'as a major collective actor in development activities' (Carnea, 1988) and emphasizes on the interaction of the multilateral and bilateral aid agencies with the national and local governments as well as with the NGOs. The bank called the interaction as a timely and an urgent task. The main reason for the bank's operational interest in NGOs is that the NGOs offer a significant and far from fully utilized potential to involve people, particularly the poorest strata, in the process of development (Carnea, 1988).

7.8 Models of Collaboration in Different Countries

Using the limited data available on the NGO sector, Korten (1991) showed that there had been a substantial growth in the number, size and sophistication of modern NGOs in the post-colonial developing world. The present trend is an increasing interest in examining the most effective ways to integrate the NGOs with the GOs in most of the developing countries. This trend is more strongly seen in many African and South Asian countries including Bangladesh, though regional variations are significant. The interest for GO-NGO collaboration stems from the growing attention to the factors that have made NGO initiated strategies successful as well as fear of over-funding and over-extending of NGO activities to institutional capacities (Salmen, 1992). These institutional linkages help to avoid institutional difficulties that arise from programs that require both operationally empathetic outreach and strict financial discipline and efficiency (Dessing, 1988). The NGOs can assess and generate the demand for services, especially in such areas as preventive health care and family planning, where demand is rarely articulated. They can work with GO to develop the methods that will be best to supply goods and services to the poor.

The NGOs are identified as partners because of their local base, experience, institutional capacity and effectiveness. At the community level, they take at least partial responsibility, in establishing information and communication network with the poor, in providing education and to improve the overall quality of life of the disadvantaged. One of the main reasons for involving the NGOs in large-scale programs is to utilize the inter institutional linkages with the existing strengths and expanding the scope of the NGO activities. (Salmen, 1992).

7.9 GO-NGO Collaboration in African Countries

With a view to analyzing the GO-NGO collaboration models in Africa, two GO-NGO models in two African countries are highlighted in the following table:

Table- 7.2: Examples of Collaboration in Africa

Country	Sector	GO Agency	NGO	Mechanism	Output
Togo	World Bank's Special Project Preparation Facility. This pilot program supported development activities.	NGO unit in GO-NGO division in the Ministry of Planning and Mines.	Five NGOs	To help the GO-NGOs work more closely, an institutional framework was developed. It had a steering committee and a special office in the GO, which brought together representatives from GO and NGOs into one decision making body (two representatives from GO and two from NGOs).	Construction of an irrigation system and small dam, building, one school, equipping of two dispensaries and establishment of a water supply program.
Keneya	Integrated Rural Health and Family Planing Project	Ministry of Health	Under the auspices of the National Council For Population and Development (NCPD) more than fifteen NGOs had joined (five NGOs were members, others were free to participate).	NGOs helped implement the project by providing training to the teachers and church leaders. They were trained to teach family life education and family planning to youth and community leaders through workshop, counseling the couples on natural family planning and by operating family planning clinics.	The collaborative program was more successful at the district and local levels, where coordination was informal and stimulated by personal relationship.

Source: World Bank, 1990.

The above two collaboration models reflect the following features:

Firstly, though the collaborative programs were working at the local levels, responsibility for collaboration from the Government side was controlled by the central government agencies, i,e, Ministry of Planning and Mines in Togo and Ministry of Health in Keneya.

Secondly, this GO-NGO collaboration worked well at the local level, where there was a need to share resources, coordination was informal and stimulated by personal relationships.

Thirdly, there is a need to develop an institutional framework for fruitful collaboration, which can ensure the representation of both the counterparts. In Togo, the steering committee worked as the institutional framework.

Fourthly, in both the models, the NGOs were working jointly with GOs at the planning and implementation stages of the programs.

7.10 Collaboration Models in South, and South-East, Asia

According to Korten (1991), Asian NGOs have, despite their political activism. collaborated more often with the governments than their counterparts in other regions. In Asia region, the Philippines is known for the variety and density of its NGOs. Government of Philippines (GOP) considers the NGOs as partners in development efforts. The five-year Medium Term Philippine Development Plan (MTPDP) for 1987-1992 represents the attitude of the GOP towards the NGOs. The MTPDP provides that the NGOs shall take the lead in undertaking and sustaining programs and projects aimed at improving the socio-economic situation. The GOP believes that the NGOs can develop and implement low-cost, innovative approaches that emphasize community participation in building up capacity of the beneficiaries for examining and solving their own problems (Creencia, 1994). The GOP requires that the NGOs projects have to be properly accredited. The favorable governmental policy encourages and fosters the GO-NGO collaboration in the Philippines. The following table highlights three GO-NGO collaboration models in the Philippines.

Table- 7.3: GO-NGO Collaboration Models in the Philippines.

Country	Sector	GO agency	NGO	Mechanism	Output
Philippines	Health Development Project	Dept. of health units and local governme nt units	NGOs at the provincial level	Education and motivation by the NGOs in the community: resource mobilization and ancillary public works by local government.	Complementary institutional service provision and finance from central through local health unit;
Philippines	Second Elementary Education Project	Dept. of Education	NGOs	An innovative non-formal summer pre-school program with NGO involvement was initiated	A successful drop out prevention model developed in the selected elementary schools in the six poorest municipalities.
Philippines	Southern Mindanao Agricultural Project (SMAP)	Dept. of Agricultur e	The NGO outreach desk.	Prepare a five-year plan of SMAP to train farmers, extension workers and other NGOs in the principles and application of sloping technology of agricultural land	Ability of the farmers, extension workers and other NGOs to identify sustainable ways to increase productivity of inland fisheries was enhanced through training.

Source: Bhatnagar, 1991.

The above collaboration models of the Philippines reflect the following features:

Firstly, the cited GO-NGO collaboration programs took place with the provincial and local level NGOs, but the main responsibility for collaboration from government side was on the central government agencies.

Secondly, in the above models, the NGOs were involved with the GO at all stages of the project including planning, implementation and evaluation.

Thirdly, in both the models the NGO-entities were local and the government entities were central in nature, but this difference did not lead to any mismatch and the collaboration programs were successful.

GO-NGO collaboration has become a common issue in most of the South Asian countries. Donors as well as the governments of these

developing countries gradually become interested to involve the NGOs in the developmental project areas. Some collaboration models, working in India and Indonesia are presented in the following table:

Table- 7.4: GO-NGO Collaboration Models in India

Country	Project	GO agency	NGO	Mechanism	Output
1. India	Fifth Population Project	Ministry of Health	NGOs in Bombay and Madras	GO of India gave grants to NGOs	A number of health clinics were established and managed by the NGOs.
2. India	(i) Watershed Developme nt programs	The State watershed Development Cell (SWDC) of the state of Karnataka	The Federation of Voluntary Organizations for Rural Development in Karnataka (FEVORD-K)	A planning process was undertaken in order to innovate interdepart-mental (within agriculture, forestry and horticulture) umbrellas at district, divisional and state levels.	Inter departmental coordination are innovated.
	(ii) Watershed pro Manageme nt, Task Force Model	Ministry of Agriculture	FEVORD	Training was provided to GO and NGO staff to create awareness.	System diagnostic approaches are innovated.

Source: Bhatnagar, 1991.

The following features can be observed in the above Indian models.

In one instance of these collaborative programs the central government implemented a program at the local level in collaboration with a single NGO located in different places. In another case, the provincial government collaborated with a federation of NGOs to implement a project at the local level.

Secondly, it appears that, in terms of success there was not much difference between the two partnership models -where in one instance a central government entity had a collaborative program with a single NGO functioning at the local level, and in the other instance a provincial government had a collaborative program with a high-profile NGO federation.

Thirdly, in these models the NGOs' participation took place only at the planning and implementation stages, but not in the monitoring and evaluation stages.

7.11 GO-NGO Collaboration: The World Bank Model

Recognizing the potential role of the NGOs towards development, major donor countries and agencies have become interested to utilize their capacities and potentialities. From this point of view, the World Bank, one of the major donor agency, has all along explored ways to facilitate cooperation between developing country governments and NGOs (Paul, 1991). Only a healthy GO-NGO collaboration ensures utilization of the capacities and advantages of both the sectors. The Bank's interest in NGOs has made the governments more aware of the NGOs and their contributions. The World Bank assists the government authorities to learn about NGOs and to consider policies that will foster effective collaboration between them. The bank tries to promote a new environment that would be helpful for such collaboration. In some countries. the bank also assists in setting up governmental or quasi-governmental institutions to channel funds to the NGOs. In other cases, the bank assists the governments to soften the restrictions of rules and regulations on NGO- activities, which become an obstacle to collaboration (The World Bank, 1990). The World Bank also attempts to make the developing countries' governments inclined to involve NGOs in developmental activities. Thus, the World Bank paves the way to make GO-NGO collaboration faster.

In Asia, the World Bank prescribed eight strategies to enhance the GO-NGO collaboration (Bhatnager, 1991). The prescribed strategies are:

Using access to Government: One of the proposed strategies of the Bank was to influences the Governments to make GO-NGO collaboration in certain key policy areas, such as, Government accreditation and evaluation of NGOs; administration of government funds to NGOs; tax and duty exemption for NGOs, regulation to foreign donation to NGOs etc.

Undertaking Policy-Oriented Studies: Policy development studies should be undertaken with a view to fostering GO-NGO collaboration. The World Bank itself undertook a number of studies in this connection where the focus was threefold:

i) Building up evidence of NGO success stories;
ii) Building up evidence of GO-NGO collaboration;
iii) Determining operational measures for fostering GO-NGO collaboration.

Sponsoring Trilateral Forums: Trilateral meetings (e.g. GO, NGO and the World Bank) should be encouraged to make the collaborative approaches more fruitful.

Sponsoring Workshops to Sensitize Senior Officials: The Bank arranged and sponsored workshops to sensitize senior government

officials in formulating and implementing state policy to involve NGOs in the national development activities.

Using Existing Training Seminars to Sensitize Lower Officials: The World Bank arranged training seminars for lower government officials with a view to motivating these officials to work together with the NGOs.

Encouraging Movement of NGO Staff into Government line Agencies: The World Bank encouraged the movement of NGO staff in government line agencies which was very helpful for GO-NGO collaboration.

Using Incentives to 'Buy' Cooperation: The World Bank offered various incentives to 'buy' cooperative effort from line agency staff in NGO-related components.

By Creating NGO Liaison Units: The World Bank suggested to create a NGO liaison unit that might be expected to enhance the scope of GO-NGO collaboration.

7.12 Assessment of GO-NGO Collaboration Models

The previous discussion highlighted the GO-NGO collaboration models that are found in some African and Asian countries including Bangladesh. There are some common features in these models and these are as follows:

i) Collaboration programs that were found to be implemented at the local level, were more meaningful.

ii) Though some local level NGOs participated in the collaborative programs, the responsibility of collaboration from the government side, in most cases, were on the central government agencies.

iii) Some common sectors are relatively more potential for GO-NGO collaboration, such as, health and family planning, education, agriculture, employment creation and environmental sector etc.

iv) In most of the cases the participation of the NGOs were observed at the planning and implementation stages only, but not in monitoring and evaluation of the projects.

v) Among the GO-NGO collaboration programs the following four types of models were predominant: i. Government sets policy and administrative framework; ii. Government facilitates NGOs' access to planning process; iii. Government line agencies engage NGOs as part of a wider strategy; iv. Donors encourage NGOs' participation in government programs (World Bank, 1990).

vi) Different collaboration models have emerged in different socio-economic and political perspectives of different countries according to the need of the situation.

7.13 Problems of Collaboration

Balanced development is a complex undertaking that cannot be achieved by any sector alone. Pluralistic society can foster the strengths of all the sectors and gain institutional advantages. It has been argued that development is an inter-institutional process that solves the problems of the existing systems that preserve underdevelopment. This process often requires collaboration among diverse organizations and sectors (Brown, 1988). In the development perspective, collaboration across sectors is an attractive mechanism of using the special capacities of different sectors. But in practice, such collaboration is often difficult to start and even more problematic to sustain (Brown and Korten, 1991).

The practical problems in the process of GO-NGO collaboration are the following:

Diversity: There are great diversity among the NGOs as regards their philosophies, objectives, mode and scale of operation. The GOs are similarly diverse in the development objectives they pursue. Besides, GOs and NGOs have very different working approaches. These diversities create great problems for GO-NGO collaborations.

Co-financing: One of the practical problems is co-financing of a collaborative program. The continuity of official contributions towards NGOs creates the risk of over-dependence of the NGOs on the public sector.

Funding: A main problem of collaboration is government's fear about funding. Government fears that fund-raising drive will slacken as a result of generous public financing of administrative cost.

Continuity of public funding: A problem of collaboration is lack of continuity of public funding. In practice, only the short-term projects are taken under collaboration due to lack of continued public funding, which would fail to demonstrate sustainable impact on national development.

Financial security: Collaboration undermines financial security, because when the NGOs accept Government funded contracts, they become vulnerable to the winds of change in the politics of the government.

The competition for external funding: The most GO-NGO contradictions lie in their relative attempts to get access and control over foreign funding.

Donor's restrictions: Another problem of collaboration felt by the NGOs is in taking the burden of recurring costs of the co-financing projects which some GOs have hitherto maintained. This constrains results from the donors' restriction in taking the burden of such costs.

Autonomy: GO-NGO collaboration challenges the NGOs' autonomy. By engaging in coordinated programs, the NGOs have to surrender certain degree of autonomy over their own actions and the external factors that may affect them.

Problem from bureaucratic pluralism: The more obvious obstacle stem from bureaucratic populism as an elected government-strategy. Government officials often perceive the NGOs as a threat or competitor (Farrington and Bebbington ed., 1993).

Lack of mutual trust: The government and the NGOs are completely separate entities and thus it takes time to gain mutual trust and confidence between the two. And lack of confidence act as an obstacle in the way of collaboration.

Unfavorable government policies: In most of the developing countries, though in their policy pronouncements, the GOs emphasize the need for NGO participation and encourage GO-NGO collaboration, various regularly laws, multiple procedural bottlenecks remain in operation to control the activities of the NGOs.

Ambiguity about respective roles: GO-NGO collaborations are constrained by the fact that the respective roles and responsibilities of the collaborating bodies are not clearly spelt out in the agreements of collaboration which leads to serious problem at the implementation stage.

Failure in previous collaborative programs: Certain failures in previous collaborative programs create disappointment and frustration among the counterparts and it acts as a deterrent to take up more collaborative ventures.

Structural adjustment: In the contemporary political and economic contexts of structural adjustment, there is much disagreement over its objectives. The shadow of structural adjustment constitutes an obstacle to make the relationship between GO and NGO (Farrington and Bebbington 1993).

For the presence of the above problems the issue of GO-NGO collaboration has become to some extent, controversial and risky. But in spite of that, many of the more strategic NGOs are seeking close collaboration with GOs. They believe that, by doing so, they will be better able to contribute to participatory development and be able to expose the GO to a grassroots perspective, which may otherwise be neglected. On the other hand, from collaboration, GO will be able to utilize the local knowledge, expertise, motivation and enthusiasm of NGOs which will be expected to have a demonstration effect on GO officials by way of their interaction with each other.

7.14 Conclusion

The GO-NGO collaboration involves a dynamic process and a complex relationship between the two entities. There are a number of arguments that justify this type of collaboration for social development but there are preconditions for effective collaboration. Collaboration has a number of constraints and it is not a simple task to be accomplished.

Moreover, there is no unique model or approach of GO-NGO collaboration rather the types and models of collaboration vary across the developing countries according to the socio-political context and nature of the projects.

However, the discussions in this chapter indicate that collaboration between GOs and NGOs will continue to expand. GO-NGO collaboration would be able to have a positive impact on the weaknesses of GO and limitations of NGO. The GO can benefit from the strong public support enjoyed by the NGOs while the NGOs can benefit themselves by scaling up their successful programs that would make a greater positive impact on the national development process. It is imperative to recognize that the roles and respective contributions of the GO and NGOs are complementary (World Bank, 1996). Experience indicates that in the selection of partner agencies and types of projects both the partners need to be cautious. Openness and mutual trust is one of the most important preconditions of collaboration. Both the counterparts can get benefits from collaboration.

Chapter 8
NGOs in Health and Population Management

8.1 Introduction

The overall situation in health and population sector in the developing countries are alarming where a child starves to death every three seconds. The world population is projected to double by 2050. Though birth rates in the third world countries have dropped from six to four, still 97 per cent of this increase will occur in the developing world.(Robey et.al., 1993; Stevens, 1994.)

The NGOs can contribute enormously to the gradual decline in fertility in the third world for their wide network. During the last 20 years the NGOs have rapidly spread and now cover about half a billion of the estimated 4.2 billion people in the third world.

8.2 NGOs and Health and Population Management

In the developing countries some NGOs that have worked on health and family planning have had a large impact on government policy. The potential role of NGOs in providing health and family planning information and services is prodigious. But their role should be viewed in light of fluctuating international interest. In the 1960s and 1970s, the dimensions of the long-term overpopulation crisis was strongly recognized worldwide. But it faded during the 1980s. The United States was the largest single contributor to family planning in the third world before 1980. In the 1984 conference in Mexico City, the Regan administration withdrew U.S. financial support for family planning programs. This policy brought a major change in U.S. funding patterns, which earlier had promoted institutional development in health and family planning in Asia and Latin America. Other bilateral donor assistance was insufficient to make up for this shortfall. A World Bank study indicated that four-fifths of the NGOs in the health sector in six Indian states obtained no foreign donor support in the 1980s (Clark, 1991). However, President Clinton reversed the policy, which offered some hope that international aid for health and family planning would be increased to address the overpopulation crisis.

The NGOs have some advantages over governments and international donors in their ability to deliver preventive health care, including family planning. Firstly, they have ties with the grassroots level support organizations and they are more adaptable to local circumstances as compare to the government outreach programs. Secondly, the NGOs often have access to alternative sources of funding, such as the international NGOs that are not always available to governments. Thirdly, the NGOs are able to promote institutional sustainability by providing the poor with a vested economic interest in community organization. The NGOs can have the largest impact on beneficiaries, focusing on their income, the core of vested interests among any group. The final and most important comparative advantage of NGOs is the complex and expanding dimensions of their links with different social institutions. By scaling up local initiatives, these networks can reduce costs and help to spread new ideas. The potential of this institutional resource is enormous as it applies to population growth.

Since the late 1980s, NGOs have proliferated in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. The third world poverty and the increased interest of the international donors to fund indigenous organizations into the field are contributing to their continued expansion. By 2025, there would be about 6.5 billion people (56 per cent more than there are today) in the third world alone. Population growth should decline from 2.3 per cent to 1.6 per cent per year. Even if the lower rate is achieved, the population of the third world in 2025 will be about 5.1 billion, which is about equal to the entire world population today (Robey, 1993.)

The urgent need is to focus on this problem by the governments, donors and international NGOs should appreciate, support and build on the proliferation of NGOs and their networks. But there remain the problem that most indigenous NGOs focus on environmental degradation or poverty rather than on population. Only a fewer indigenous NGOs focus on the health and population problems. NGOs are broadening the scope of their activities, particularly on the environmental front. The NGOs become world leaders in their understanding of the connections between poverty and environmental deterioration. However, as NGOs move away from providing thinly spread social services toward promoting environmentally sustainable economic development, their lack of attention to population growth as well as health services are noteworthy.

In Asia, the primary health care organizations first attempt to promote health and family planning services through training of large numbers of village paraprofessionals. The Indonesian Planned Parenthood

Association, an affiliate of the International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF), began village programs in 1957 and is now one of the largest NGOs in Indonesia. Other NGOs in Indonesia and South Korea have used thousands of village-based mothers' clubs to spread primary health care and family planning services. The Community based family planning services of Thailand had worked in 113 districts and 12,000 villages, comprising 23 per cent of the population of Thailand, by the end of 1977. Pregnancy rates declined 40 per cent in sample surveys of those districts, and the cost was one-tenth of that of a comparable government program (Ahmed, 1980; During, 1989.) In all of these countries, the NGOs have created innovative models for more massive governmental programs.

Over several decades, foreign financial support led the indigenous health, population and family planning movement in Asia. In Bangladesh, 72 voluntary organizations (NGOs and nonprofit hospitals), primarily in the health sector, existed as of 1984 and many of these provided family planning services (Paul, 1987).

Organizations specializing in population and family planning have not proliferated as rapidly as other NGOs. An empirical study found that only about 12 of the 93 projects studied were involved in family planning even though one in four had health care programs (Scheider, 1985.) More recent research focuses this finding even for areas in Asia and Latin America (Moen, 1991). For this phenomenon, restrictions on international assistance are only a reason. The main problem is the cultural, political and religious barriers of the societies that have inhibited the emergence of population organizations in those countries. The same problem is faced by the NGOs, whenever the NGOs attempt to incorporate family planning programs. Foreign support may strengthen the reluctance of NGOs to confront intricate cultural prohibitions. The issues of accountability, which are the source of NGOs' vitality and effectiveness, tend them to steer away from culturally sensitive issues.

The NGOs have considerable potential to influence and strengthen government population policies. There are many bright instances where NGOs have influenced population policy implementation on local and regional level. The NGOs can influence government population policies where they have been active in this area. In India, the Gujarat State government adopted an insurance plan for pregnant women initiated by the self-employed Women's Association. Based on a small registration fee, it contains a built-in family planning incentive whereby women who undergo sterilization receive a cash payment.

NGOs also influence policy and magnify their impact by imparting training to the government employees. The Women's Health Coalition in Bangladesh had served more than 75,000 by 1989, but it reached even more women by providing training towards government health and family planning workers (Germaine and Ordway, 1989.)

Though some NGOs have shown tremendous record on population and family planning in some Asian and Latin American countries, their enormous potential has not been harnessed in much of the third world. Because all NGOs are not suited to provide health and family planning services. Besides attention must be given to how NGOs can help increase the demand for smaller families. NGOs that increase the educational and employment opportunities available to women are even more important to the success of a strategy to increase demand for family planning.

The spread of grassroots level support functions among different types of voluntary organizations implies that there is considerable potential for adding family planning to existing health care systems. Linking hospitals and clinics to NGO networks as well as to women's organizations can reduce the cost of expanded coverage. The proliferation of indigenous charities and NGOs focusing on the acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) in the 1990s provides another opportunity for institutionalizing and coordinating the reproductive health care efforts in the third world. (Landim, 1992)

NGO networks can also disseminate specialized knowledge among member organizations. The potential impact of NGOs assisting each other in family planning is considerable, whether they create their own network or act within the already established networks.

8.3 Health Sector NGOs in Bangladesh

Though there are about 20,000 NGOs in Bangladesh, only a selected few are directly involved in health-related projects or programs. According to the data published by Voluntary Health Services (VHSS)2 there are 198 NGOs both international and local that are involved in health projects.

It is important to note that although there are 198 registered NGOs in health sector, these are not necessarily specialized health care NGO. Almost all of these NGOs have regular development projects catering to the needs of the disadvantaged groups and the poor. In addition to their regular programs,

[2] The VHSS is the national coalition of the health sector NGOs in Bangladesh. It is a coordinating and support service agency for the NGOs actively involved in health throughput Bangladesh. VHSS has come a long way since its beginning in 1978 when total number of members was only 28, which stands to 198 as of date. VHSS maintains links with government, donor and the NGOs.

these NGOs have some health education and health related community mobilization programs. In most cases the NGO programs include awareness raising regarding immunization, family planning practices, campaign for safe drinking water, and basic health education. With a few exceptions, most of these NGOs do not have direct health care facilities and/or program intervention for their respective clientele groups.

Table-8.1 presents an overall picture of the growth of health care NGOs in Bangladesh. It clearly reveals that these NGOs emerged significantly after 1980s where about 51 per cent of these NGOs came into operation during the period of 1981-1990. During the next five to six years yet another 12.5 per cent of these NGOs initiated their operations.

Table-8.1: **Growth of Health Sector NGOs in Bangladesh**

Year of Establishment	Number of NGOs	Percentage	Cum %
Before 1971*	14	7.33%	7.33%
1971 – 1975	23	12.04%	19.37%
1976 – 1980	32	16.75%	36.13%
1981 – 1985	60	31.41%	67.54%
1986 – 1990	38	19.90%	87.43%
1991 – 1995	22	11.52%	98.95%
1996 - to Date	2	1.05%	100.00%
Total	191	100.00%	

** The first one was established in 1938 named Bogra Christian Hospital.*

This growth pattern shows the increasing concern of the international donor community regarding the health sector and their emphasis on integration of the NGO sector in health management and delivery system in Bangladesh. Table 8.2 reveals that about 42 per cent of the health sector NGOs are located in the capital city and other major metropolis. The remaining 51per cent of these NGOs are based in district towns (29.75%) and small Thana headquarters (23.56%).

Table-8.2: **Location of Health Sector NGOs in Bangladesh**

Location	Number of NGOs	Percentage	Cum Freq
Dhaka	80	41.88%	41.88%
Other Metropolis	13	6.81%	48.69%
District Town	53	27.75%	76.44%
Thana Town	45	23.56%	100.00%
Total	191	100.00%	

A further distribution of the growth pattern of the NGOs is presented in Table 8.3 which clearly indicates that during the period of 1981-1995 more NGOs came into operations in the peripheral areas like small district

and 'thana' level towns. This was because of the priority set by the donors that these NGOs should primarily cater to the needs of the rural and disadvantaged people in the peripheral areas.

Table: 8.3 Location –wise growth of Health Sector NGOs in Bangladesh.

Year of Establishment	Location-wise Number of NGOs				
	Dhaka City	Other Metropolis	District Town	Thana Town	Total
Before 1971	8	0	2	4	14
1971-1975	16	0	5	2	23
1976-1980	11	5	7	9	32
1981-1985	20	4	21	15	60
1986-1990	15	1	11	11	38
1991-1995	8	3	7	4	22
1996-1997	2	0	0	0	2
Total	80	13	53	45	191
%	41.88%	6.81%	27.75%	23.56%	100%

Table 8.4 and 8.5 give an overview of the coverage of program areas and the beneficiaries of the programs run by the NGOs. About 72 per cent of these NGOs cover up to 10 thanas[3] by their respective projects. An in-depth look into the table further reveals that program intervention of 93 per cent of these NGOs are confined to less than 50 thanas. It indicates that area wise role and operational coverage of these NGOs are not very significant i.e., 93 per cent of these NGOs cater the need of only 10.8 per cent of the Thanas. Spatial dimensions of program coverage of the NGOs are therefore still quite low.

As far as the direct beneficiaries are concerned, 54 per cent of the NGOs cater to the needs of less than 30,000 potential clients. However, this figure is not even reflecting the actual number of program beneficiaries rather it is based on the calculation of the population in the areas where the NGOs are operating.

Table-8.4: Thana Coverage of Health Project NGOs in Bangladesh

Number of Thanas Covered	Number of NGOs	Percentage	Cum Freq.
1 –10	116	71.60%	71.60%
11 –20	18	11.11%	82.72%
21 – 50	16	9.88%	92.59%
51 – 100	5	3.09%	95.68%
101 – 300	3	1.85%	97.53%
Above 300	4	2.47%	100.00%
Total	162	100.00%	0.62%

[3] Thana is the lowest administrative unit in Bangladesh. There are 460 Thanas in Bangladesh.

Table-8.5: **Number of Beneficiaries Covered by the Health Project NGOs in Bangladesh.**

Number of Beneficiaries Covered	Number of NGOs	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency.
Less than 1000	5	3.13%	3.13%
1000 – 2000	11	6.88%	10.00%
2000 – 5000	23	14.38%	24.38%
5000 – 10000	20	12.50%	36.88%
10000 – 30000	28	17.50%	54.38%
30000 – 50000	16	10.00%	64.38%
50000 – 100000	21	13.13%	77.50%
100000 – 500000	20	12.50%	90.00%
500000 – above	16	10.00%	100.00%
Total	160	100.00%	

Data on 31 NGOs were not available

In line with the donors' priority, the NGOs in health sector emerged significantly during the 1980s. On the basis of the above tables we may make some broad observations. The growth rate of NGOs is marginally higher in the peripheral areas than in the major cities. Insipte of the growth rate area-wise coverage of the NGO operation is still limited. There exists a bright opportunity for NGOs to play a significant role in health and family planning sector in Bangladesh by expanding their programs.

8.4 Conclusion

From the above discussion it becomes clear that NGOs play a significant role in health and family planning sector all over the world. In many developing countries, NGOs become able to influence government's health and family planning policies. NGOs enjoy some advantages over governments in their ability to deliver preventive as well as curative health care including family planning. Because of their grassroots support organizations, their link with alternative sources of funds, their capacity to provide the poor with a vested economic interest in community organizations and their expanding linkages with different social institutions, make them able to play the role of a catalyst in this sector at the global level.

NGOs that provide credit, including 400 (of the 763) branches of the Grameen Bank, have made Herculean efforts to reach the population below the poverty line. Health and family planning NGOs now work in 13,000 of the 80,000 officially recognized villages in Bangladesh. Yet, unless the government, as well as national and international NGOs vastly

extend their reach and promote health and family planning services on an increasing scale, other development efforts would fail to alleviate poverty and protect the environment (Williams, 1990.) The nature of the relationship between GO and NGOs plays an important role in this respect. Because, better understanding, greater confidence and mutual trust between these two sectors can help make the innovative programs of the NGOs' more effective and successful. Thus, GO-NGO collaboration in health and family planning sector in Bangladesh would be able to make a positive impact on the national development as a whole.

Chapter 9
GO-NGO Collaboration in Bangladesh: Case Study of Two Selected Programs

9.1 Introduction

In recent years, NGOs have emerged as a significant force in the development initiative of many developing countries. In these countries NGOs have been consider either as 'the institutional alternative' or as 'the alternative strategy' for accelerating development. The increasing emphasis and reliance on the NGOs for poverty alleviation and income generation has become evident in the programs and policies of many donors, international agencies and institutions.

NGOs are important because of their genuine contribution to beneficiary-oriented grassroots level development. The importance of NGOs in the development process stems from the perceived failure of donors and of national government to effectively promote development and to raise the standard of living of the poor. NGOs are now a reality and a strong force in the socio-economic development of Bangladesh.

Throughout the world opportunities are growing for NGOs to work together with GOs. In the present global environment, GO-NGO relationship is considered vital for national development. Government alone can not address all the problems with its limited resources. NGOs by virtue of its innovation, efficiency, flexibility and adaptability contribute significantly towards development at the grassroots level. Therefore, for overall development, the government efforts need to be complemented by NGOs, which is only possible if there is a sound GO-NGO relationship. A sound GO-NGO relationship needs a positive attitude from GO and effectiveness from NGOs.

The present chapter focuses on the institutional features and viability of GO-NGO collaborative programs in Bangladesh. Some collaborative programs, that took place among GOB and various NGOs, are cited here as examples. Two collaborative projects in health and family planning sector run both by GOB and two NGOs (BRAC and CARE) constitute the scope of the as case study. In this chapter, it is attempt to analyze the views of the participatory agencies towards the projects and examine

institutional viability of collaborative model developed by both GOB and NGOs.

Development now-a-days is perceived as an inter- institutional process and that hence it requires collaboration among various organizations. Because, single organization or institution often doesn't have enough resources needed to solve development problems. Sustainable development requires new networks of relationship among relevant organizations and institutions. Increasing interdependency between GO and NGO seems to be the global trend now-a-days (Brown, 1988).

GO-NGO relationship has been identified by Clark (1995) as key to development. For harmonious development alternative and complementary channels need to be identified and fostered (Drabek, 1987). NGOs both local and foreign have been found useful for a variety of services and as sources of initiatives that can supplement even GO in a number of fields from public health to irrigation, rural credit and small public works (Drabek, 1987). Now it is more openly recognized that in certain circumstance especially in Latin America, as well as in some South Asian and African countries where the state is extremely weak, NGOs have been doing the bulk of development works at the grassroots level. NGOs possess qualities which complement public sector activities (Farrington and Bebbington ed., 1993). GO-NGO collaboration ensures closer understanding and greater cooperation between GO and NGO that becomes most helpful for making NGO programs and objectives effective (Adnan and Brrett, 1992). Governments appear more and more open to collaborative relationship with NGOs (Farnington and Bebbington ed., 1993). For proper utilization of scarce resources for development GO-NGO collaboration has no alternative.

9.2 GO-NGO Collaboration in Bangladesh

Collaboration with GOs is one of the major characteristics of Asian NGOs. Using the limited data available on the NGOs Korten (1991) shows that there has been a substantial growth in the number, size and sophistication of modern NGOs in the post colonial-developing world. Regional variations are significant. But Asian NGOs have despite their political activism, collaborated more often with GOs than their counterparts in other regions (Korten, 1991). This characteristic has subsequently influenced the GO-NGO collaboration in Bangladesh.

Bangladesh is considered as a fertile land for GO-NGO collaboration. NGOs in Bangladesh emerged from the government's inability to meet

the hopes and aspirations of the people (Hasan, 1992). With a view to addressing the developmental problems of Bangladesh, various NGOs have been established and some national NGOs like BRAC, Proshika etc. have achieved tremendous success in their efforts and have gained worldwide identity. Many international NGOs like CARE, RDRS etc. have been working in Bangladesh for a long time. The achievements of these NGOs have been able to attract the attention of the donors and gradually they have become very much interested to involve these NGOs in the development process of Bangladesh.

A preference for NGO option to development activities is now a common strategy for donor agencies in Bangladesh (Aminuzzaman, 1993). Available documents clearly indicate that the donors hold very high opinion about the NGOs and most donors agreed that NGOs play a significant role in the socio-economic development of Bangladesh. All the leading donor countries and the multilateral agencies like the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank etc. not only judged the NGO experiment in Bangladesh as a success, but also emphasized on the need to utilize NGO experience at the national level (Aminuzzaman, 1993). The World Bank identified NGOs as an alternative institutional framework to address the problems of poverty alleviation in Bangladesh. A world Bank policy paper stresses that there is a need to explore how the capacities of some of the selected successful NGOs can be expanded in order to supplement GO efforts in accelerating the pace of development in Bangladesh. It further noted that the NGOs had developed "a unique understanding of local institutions and of socio-cultural environment and have been able to make valuable contributions to Bangladesh's socio-economic development" (World Bank, 1983).

The World Bank strongly advocated for the development of an effective collaboration between the GOB and a selected number of NGOs which could be attained by the former making available to the latter the facilities necessary to enable the NGOs to expand their programs (World Bank, 1990). Thus donors have played a significant role in advocating for NGOs as an active partner of GOB in the development process of Bangladesh (Aminuzzaman, 1993). So, in the present socio-economic political context of Bangladesh, GO-NGO collaboration is very much essential (Islam and Hussain, 1993). Collaborative programs between GOB and NGOs help to combine the valuable experience of NGOs in group formation, awareness raising, human resource development and income generating activities with the large scale capacity of GOB line agencies to deliver inputs of technical expertise and technical resources (Aminuzzaman, 1993).

Report of the Task Force (1990) also acknowledged the NGO sector as "a positive force in national development" and advised the government to utilize the NGO and "create a conducive and congenial policy environment ensuring an uninhabited operation of the NGOs thereby enabling them to contribute effectively to national development." With a view to utilizing the knowledge and experience of NGOs at the grassroots level, the Task-Force therefore recommended GOB for involving NGOs in formulating appropriate policies and developing programs both at the local and national level (Report of The Task-Force, 1991). In the Fourth Five-Year plan (FFYP), GOB also recognized the importance of the contributions of different types of NGOs and opted to utilize their services in a more cost-effective and coordinated manner. Instances of cooperation between GO and NGOs have been encouraging in Bangladesh. NGOs are encouraged to complement/supplement activities undertaken by GOB (Fifth Five-Year Plan, 1998). Thus, it became clear that GOB is serious and committed to GOB-NGO collaboration and in principle GOB has accepted NGOs as partners in development management.

9.3 GO-NGO Collaboration Models in Bangladesh

Bangladeshi NGOs are well known for their innovative approaches in combating poverty. They have demonstrated significant level of success in the field of micro-credit, non-formal education, health and family planning, women development, income generating activities, etc. Government of Bangladesh (GOB) is responsible for determining the general policy directions for national development. But it is simply impossible for the GOB to shoulder the national development responsibility alone and to bring about sustainable improvements in the lives of the poor. Bangladesh has a distinct advantage of having a set of experienced NGOs working towards social development. The extensive network of the NGOs that exists in Bangladesh offers a tremendous resource potential, which can be drawn upon to tackle the nation's vast developmental needs.

The NGOs are universally recognized for their exceptional ability to reach the grassroots. In less than two decades, Bangladesh has become the land of some of the largest and most effective NGOs in the world (Brown and Korten, 1991). But in spite of some tremendous achievements of the NGOs within their own coverage, the NGOs are not optimally competent to contribute positive and sustainable impact on a wider scale. And to make the NGOs able to contribute more towards the national

development of Bangladesh, the NGOs need active support, encouragement and collaboration from the GOB. The obstacles to development can only be overcome through such collaboration (World Bank, 1996).

Findings of a study indicate that the relationship between the state and the NGOs in Bangladesh is contradictory and difficult (White, 1991). The formal links between government and the NGOs in Bangladesh cannot be claimed to be integrated (Aminuzzaman, 1993), but relations between the GOB and the NGOs have matured over the years and GOB realize the need for closer cooperation between GO and NGO. The GOB recognizes the NGOs contributions towards national development as well as express the eagerness to utilize the capabilities of the NGOs through various collaborative programs (Task Force Report, 1991; Fifth Five year plan. 1998). Besides, the leading donor countries and the multilateral agencies like the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank etc. not only considered the NGO-experiments in Bangladesh as successful, but also emphasized to the GOB the need to utilize the NGO-experiments at the national level (Aminuzzaman, 1993).

The World Bank, the largest multilateral donor for Bangladesh, as early as in 1983 advocated in favor of NGOs as an alternative institutional framework to address the problem of poverty in Bangladesh. A World Bank policy paper stressed the need to explore how the capacity of some of the selected successful NGOs can be expanded in order to supplement government efforts in accelerating the pace of rural development in Bangladesh. It further noted that the NGOs have developed a unique understanding of local institutions and of socio-cultural environment and have been able to make valuable contribution to the socio-economic development of Bangladesh (World Bank, 1990).

In the light of the final analysis of the World Bank studies of 1990 and 1996, it strongly advocated for the development of an effective collaboration between the government and a selected number of NGOs which could be attained by the former making available to the latter the facilities necessary to enable the NGOs to expand their programs.

The GOB recognizes the NGOs' contributions and their strategies to reach the development goals, and this recognition is more vivid when they provide supplementary services. The GOB as well as the NGOs became gradually interested in collaborative programs.

The following table highlights some of the collaborative programs in Bangladesh.

Table-9.1: GO-NGO Collaboration Models in Bangladesh

Name of major areas	Name of the project.	Specific strategy	Collaborative agencies of GOB	Collaborative agencies of NGO	Output
a) Health & Family Planning	Expanded Program for Immuniz a-tion (EPI)	(1) Social mobilization (2) Assistance in creating demand (3) Assistance in planning & advocacy exercise (4) Assistance in training (5) Assistance in policy formulation (6) Assistance in research, monitoring	Ministry of Health & Family Planning	Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC)	The outcome was impressive. It brought sustainability in health programs through raising the capacity of villagers to demand health services & to be more conscious.
	Population and health project II	NGOs Establish infrastructure to be used, training on health and family planning	Ministry of Health & Family Planning	Swanirver, an established NGO	4 thousand persons were trained
b) Education, Training & Research	(1) Facilitation Assistance on Primary Education (FADE)	(1) Giving training to GOB officials (2) Raising of supervisory & managerial capacity of the staff	Ministry of Education	BRAC	(1) Increased primary school enrolment (6-10 years old) (2) Raised the attendance of learners from 40% to 75% (3) Reduced drop-out from school (4) Increased community participation in the overall school management (5) Relationship between teachers & community leaders improved.
	(2) Non-Formal Primary Education (NFPE)	An alternative three-year primary education program for children between 8-10 years who never enrolled in school	Primary and Mass Education Division (PMED)	BRAC	A replicable primary education model is developed which provide in a three years

	or have drooped out during the first year.			period, basic literacy & numeracy to the disadvantaged children.
(3) Apiculture production program	(1) Providing training (2) Providing equipment & on-the-job guidance	Bangladesh Agricultural Research Council (BARC)	Bangladesh Apiculture Institute (BAI)	Most of the trainees became successful whereas some failed to capture hives due to scarcity of wild colonies and natural calamities.
(4) Training & Resource Development	(1) Leadership development (2) Project planning & management. (3) Consciousness raising & motivation (4) Literacy & education . (5) Project evaluation & documentation	Bangladesh Rural Development Board (BRDB), Ministry of Women Affairs, Ministry of health & Family Planning, Dept. of Social services.	Village Education Resource Centre (VERC)	Poor women are organized into socio-economics groups; their income generation activities are facilitated; and their motivation to arrange proper health facilities increased.
(5) Agriculture Research & Extension	(1) Established a model of block farming. (2) Co-operative trails of mgt. Practices.	BARC, Bangladesh Rice Research Institute (BRRI), Bangladesh Agricultural Research (BARI), Bangladesh Agriculture University & Bangladesh Coordinated Soybean Research Project (BCSRP)	Mennonite Central Committee (MCC)	This project achieved success in communicating the needs & constraints of marginal farmers to the government research institution & meaningfully adopted government research to the subsistence farmers' context.
(6) Livestock Development Program	(1) Vaccination supply & campaign undertaken for controlling cattle diseases.	Ministry of Fisheries & Livestock	Proshika	(1) Vaccination is distributed through the target groups. (2) Some groups have

Employment Generation

	(2) First aid treatment (3) Mini dairy firm			established "Livestock pharmacy" equipped with first aid materials. The target group can successfully handle the program.
(2) Third Fisheries (Shrimp culture) Project	(1) Prepare a list of households of the area (2) Implement a baseline survey (3) Provide mechanism for feedback (4) Motivating farmers for organizing themselves as a group on the basis of land ownership patterns (5) Informing the farmers about the most appropriate means & methods (6) Organizing an area-wise selection to	Dept.of Fisheries Bangladesh Water Development Board (BWDB)	CARITAS	Despite some major inadequacies, the limited intervention in the form of group formation, delivery of training & other inputs with the help of CARITAS has already shown enough promises for the shrimp sub-sector.
Shrimp culture project	approve the project.	PIU extension service	NGO	The coordination exhibited by both groups creates an effective output.
(3) Rural Maintena n-ce Program (RMP)	(1) Monitoring field operation (2) Provide project management advice to GOB	Ministry of Local Govt. & Rural Development	CARE (Bangladesh)	RMP was implemented in 4,100 unions of Bangladesh which represent 93 per cent of the total unions of the country. (1) This program created job opportunity for destitute women (2) Rural earthen roads were maintained
(4) Income Generatio n for	(1) Provide skill training on poultry rearing (2) Giving support by	World Food Program; Dept. Of	BRAC	This program has achieved tremendous results in

	Vulnerable Group Development Programs (IGVGD)	wheat ration (3) Vaccination on a regular basis (4) Dev. of key rearers (5) Distribution of HYV egg, chicken & cocks. (6) Credit support.	Relief & Rehabilitation; Dept. of Livestock		transforming the capabilities of destitute women into wonderful opportunity of sustainable income, leading to a sustained improvement in the lives of disadvantaged rural women.
	(5) Irrigation Equipment Scheme	A deep tube-well (DTW) scheme	Bangladesh Agriculture Development. Corporation (BADC), BD Kirishi Bank (BKB)	BRAC Proshika	
	(6) Post-Drought Agricultural Rehabilitation Program	Receive sub-contract from GOB to supply & sink treadle pump	Ministry of Agriculture	Rangpur Dinajpur Rehabilitation Service (RDRS)	This scheme failed due to lack of proper & prompt decisions from the GOB.
	(7) Marginal & Small Firm System Intensification Project	(1) Social literacy & functional education (2) Group management. (3) Health & Nutrition (4) Crop intensification & diversification (5) Planning & management of non-crop activities (6) Credit & Savings management.	Directorate of Agricultural Extension	RDRS	(1) For imparting training 37 male & 28 female social literacy centers were established (2) 4700 man-days training were conducted on 17 different subjects (3) 1031 group members received social literacy training
D.	Environment	(1) Social forestry program	(1) Forest protection (2) Agroforesty (3) Nursery Development (4) Roadside,	Forest Dept.	BRAC Proshika	(1) Income from social forestry interventions inspired the

	pondside & embankment plantation (5) Homestead cultivation (6)Sustainable agriculture through participatory management.	group members to take up social forestry project (2) The forest protection activities undertaken by group members was a unique example of spontaneous grassroots initiative to tackle the consequence of environmental degradation involving participatory management of local resources.

Source: Bhatnager, 1991; Bhattacharya and Ahmed, 1995.

The following observations can be made from the above table and discussion:

Given the experience, we may conclude that there is a potential scope for GO-NGO collaboration in Bangladesh. The GOB recognizes the potential strengths of NGOs in the organization and management of development projects. And such collaboration helps to combine the extensive experience of NGOs in group formation, awareness raising, human resource development and income generating activities with the large-scale capacity of GOB line agencies to deliver inputs and resources. The local knowledge, human resource development expertise, motivation and enthusiasm of NGO staff is expected to have a 'demonstration effect' on the GOB staff by way of their interaction with each other (Aminuzzaman, 1993).

GO-NGO collaboration programs are centralized in Bangladesh, like most of the collaborative programs in other developing countries. In other words, though the collaboration programs are taking place at the local level, but the main responsibility rests on central government agencies.

Collaboration between Local Government and NGOs may become another potential area for collaboration. Local Government units in Bangladesh are weak and are lacking in functional capabilities. On the other hand, the NGOs of this country have achieved success in local level projects. The local level experience and functional capabilities of the NGOs can be utilized to help the local government units in delivering services efficiently through collaborative programs.

The large and established NGOs are able to participate in GO-NGO collaboration programs. Their established position, donors' support and excellent success in different programs make the GOB interested to undertake different collaborative programs in those sectors and with those particular NGOs. For example, the tremendous success of BRAC in non formal primary education made the GOB interested to undertake Non formal Primary Education (NFPE) program with BRAC.

GO-NGO collaborative programs are concentrated in some specific areas, such as, health and family planning, education, agriculture, employment generation, environment etc.

Major donor countries and agencies are very much interested for undertaking GO-NGO collaborative programs in Bangladesh. These donors try their best to open doors for fruitful interaction between the GOB and the NGOs and for achieving this objective they have undertaken various steps.

9.4 GO-NGO Collaboration in Health and Population Management: Two Case Studies

The main focus of the empirical chapter is to highlight the institutional viability of GO-NGO collaborative model in the context of Bangladesh. By institutional viability, we mean the viability of an extensive, organized and open working system which has its own goals and resources being able to attract support that induce changes which are associated with technologies both physical and social. Institutional viability also indicates the ability monitor the outcomes of the system. It also indicates its ability legitimacy and acceptance from its environment.

To analyze the institutional viability of GO-NGO collaborative model the author wanted to focus on

- The necessity of GO-NGO collaboration as well as limitations of both the sectors.
- The assessment of concerned persons of both the counterparts about the probable outputs or benefits of GOB-NGO collaborative programs from their working experience. The probable successful mechanisms of GOB-NGO collaborative programs according to the opinions of concerned persons.
- To identify problems of collaborative program and to find out probable solutions.

In the following section an attempt has been made to examine two projects run by NGOs to supplement GOB efforts in organization and management of public health delivery system. These projects are funded

by the donor agencies. Both projects are experimental collaborative projects between the Government and the NGOs.

The study attempts to highlight the institutional features and the viability of GO-NGO collaborative model in health sector in Bangladesh. To analyze the institutional viability of collaborative model, the focus is on *how the participating agencies of both GOB and NGOs look into the project and its viability as collaborative model between the Government and NGOs.*

The author has chosen two projects run by BRAC and CARE in collaboration with the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare as two case studies. The Family Planning Facilitation Project (FP-FP) of BRAC and Child Health Initiative for Lasting Development (CHILD) project of CARE have been selected for the purpose of the study. The author and her research assistants have interviewed about 90 persons concerned with the projects. Besides the interview, the author has also made several visits to the study area from time to time during the period under the study.

Assumptions of the Projects

Both of these projects are based on the following assumptions:

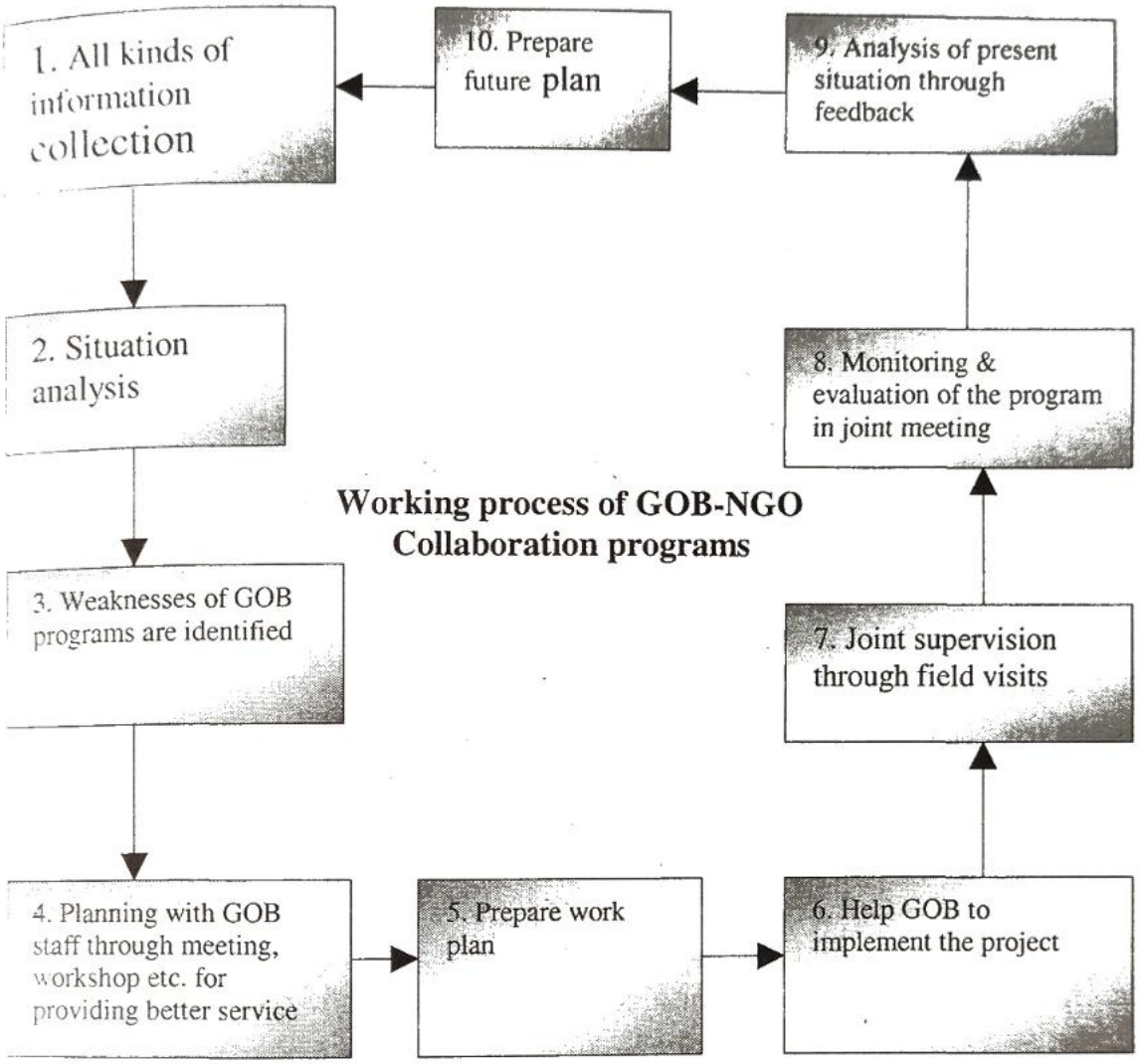
- NGOs are well organized, planned and action oriented compared to GOB functionaries.
- NGOs have considerable experiences in approaching and mobilizing the rural population at large.
- GOB functionaries at the grassroots level are weak in project design, implementation, supervision and monitoring.
- NGOs can supplement the GOB program operation through transfer of soft technology and management planning and skills.

Objectives

The GOB and the partner NGO made a collaboration agreement to design and implement the projects. The objectives of this effort were to:

- Supplement GOB's family planning program/child survival services in peripheral areas.
- Enhance the quality of care of its services.
- Implement innovative means for social mobilization and communicate supplement service delivery in areas with gap.
- Works towards increased community involvement and sustainability of program effects and achievements.
- Assist GOB in the implementation of national programs through replication of experiences and models from BRAC and CARE.

Figure-6: Functional Flow of Collaboration between GOB and NGO


1. All kinds of information collection
10. Prepare future plan
9. Analysis of present situation through feedback
2. Situation analysis
8. Monitoring & evaluation of the program in joint meeting
Working process of GOB-NGO Collaboration programs
3. Weaknesses of GOB programs are identified
7. Joint supervision through field visits
4. Planning with GOB staff through meeting, workshop etc. for providing better service
5. Prepare work plan
6. Help GOB to implement the project

Boxes with double lines indicate that these stages of the projects are done jointly by GOB and concerned NGO and boxes with single line indicate that these stages of the projects are done by the concerned NGO.

9.6 Functional Flow of GO-NGO Collaboration

The above figure presents the working process of the existing collaboration model in health sector. This process was in operation in both FP-FP and CARE programs. The data of the study revealed that the GO-NGO collaboration involved 10 different steps. But collaboration did not take place in all the steps. Analysis of the process of collaboration presented the following sequence.

At the out-set of GO-NGO collaboration the functionaries of the NGO concerned collect information regarding the GOB service, then they analyze the situation and identify the weaknesses of GOB program. In the fourth step, they arrange workshops, meetings etc. to exchange views with

their counterpart. Subsequently, both the partners jointly prepare the work plan and then the NGO functionaries help the GOB functionaries to implement the program. In the next step, both the counterparts jointly supervise the program through field visits and monitor and evaluate the program in joint meetings. Combining the findings of the joint evaluation and feed back received from the program beneficiaries, the NGO concerned analyze the present situation and provide necessary feed-back to the GOB. On the basis of feed back, both the counterparts jointly prepare the future plans.

Case study-1: GOB-NGO collaboration program in Family Planning: FP-FP program of BRAC: BRAC a renowned local NGO has been working with a view to empowering the rural poor and alleviating poverty. BRAC has already gained a worldwide reputation through its various successful development oriented programs. International observers have identified BRAC as one of the most effective operational NGO, which is becoming effective in challenging development orthodoxy and promoting people-centered approaches.

With the encouragement from the international donor agencies, BRAC has shown tremendous success in health related projects in the peripheral Bangladesh. One such example is BRAC assistance in GOB's *Expanded Program on Immunization (EPI).* Data reveal significantly high rate of immunization where BRAC was involved in facilitation of the government program. Success of collaboration with BRAC further encouraged the GOB to develop new areas of collaboration in health sector.

Brief History of FP-FP Program of BRAC: In the early 1990s, the Government of Bangladesh through the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, (MHFW) requested BRAC to assist in implementing the Mother and Child health and Family Planning (MCH-FP) sector projects in the country. BRAC was specially requested to focus on some of the low performing areas to enhance the contraceptive coverage and develop a strategy leading to sustainability of the MCH-FP achievements. BRAC's Health and Population Division (HPD) therefore, initiated the Family Planning Facilitation Program (FP-FP) for 33 months to facilitate family planning activities in four low-performing districts i.e. Nilphamari, Sherpur, Hobigonj and Moulvibazar. This program is being funded by the USAID through Pathfinder International.

The FP-FP program was initiated in December 1994 to augment the quality of life through improved maternal and child morbidity and reduced mortality. In its first year of operation, the program was implemented in the 11 thanas of Nilphamari and Sherpur districts. From

the second year i.e., from December 1995, the project activities were expanded to all the 14 thanas including the three municipalities of Habigonj and Moulvibazar districts. Presently FP-FP program is operated in twenty-five thanas of the four districts. FP-FP program covers a population of 5.3 million and provides management and training support to the national population program of the MHFW.

The BRAC field level functionaries undertake a diagnostic survey and collect grassroots information on health related issues and identify local needs. The BRAC diagnostic survey identifies the weaknesses of GOB programs as well as the causes of low performance. BRAC functionaries then present the findings of the study in joint meeting of BRAC and the field level MHFW staff. Based on the findings of the survey and diagnostic study, BRAC's staff provide technical assistance to the GOB staff at the district level to prepare a comprehensive work plan with a view to enhancing the quality of its services. In joint working sessions BRAC staff assist the GOB staff to prepare the comprehensive work plan. On the basis of the comprehensive work plan, operational program plans are designed in close consultation and support from BRAC. BRAC staff assist the MHFW field level functionaries to revise and read just the operational plans. In addition BRAC provides management supports, management information support, training support and also provides facilitation of government services centers (satellite clinics, sterilization camps and EPI outreach centers). Besides, BRAC's staffs help mobilizing the target group. The field workers of BRAC also make the target group aware of the service facilities through proper counseling.

The implementation of the program is supervised jointly through field visits of the BRAC and MHFW field staff. BRAC collects feedback from the clientele through the field level staff. This feedback helps the project team to modify the action plan and develop future work plan.

The above mentioned collaborative project was found to enhance the professional skills of the field staff of MHFW. This project was designed to give training for developing the managerial capacity of the field staff of MHFW for planning and delivery of services. It gave assistance and provided technical support to MHFW field staff to design strategies and monitoring system and coordinated the activities at the grassroots level in conjunction with the groups mobilized by BRAC.

Case-Study-2: Child Health Initiative for Lasting Development (CHILD) of CARE: CARE International is the world's largest private, nonsectarian, non-profit relief and development agency. Since 1946 CARE has been assisting people in more than seventy-five countries of

five continents to improve their quality of life. At present CARE operates development assistance and disaster relief programs in forty Asian, African and Latin American countries. These programs directly address basic needs of the poorest people through primary health care, agriculture and natural resources and small enterprise development.

CARE has been functioning in the area now known as Bangladesh since 1955. Prior to independence in 1971; CARE was primarily involved in relief activities, school and pre-school feeding and construction of warehouses and low cost housing. CARE has worked closely with GOB and local agencies since 1971 with a view to achieving a sustainable impact on rural poverty.

Brief History of CHILD Project: In October 1991, GOB took an initiative to improve the overall health status of children and women of reproductive age and GOB requested CARE to assist GOB in this program. As a result in collaboration with the MOHFW, CARE-Bangladesh has developed the Child Health Initiative for Lasting Development (CHILD) project in Sylhet district. In the first phase, the CHILD project was implemented in 5 of 11 thanas of Sylhet for a four years period. Based on the lessons learned from the project, Phase II of CHILD was launched in September 1995 to cover additional 3 thanas of Sylhet district under newly created Sylhet division.

The objectives of CHILD-II were to improve the delivery of child survival services through the existing MOHFW system, to increase access to and use of health services at the community level, and to strengthen the MOHFW's capacity to deliver high quality. This project attempted to maintain sustainable and integrate outreach services by establishing closer linkage between MOHFW field workers, the community and local NGOs.

In order to achieve these objectives CARE promoted a broad community mobilization and education program. CARE mobilized key community members and use different community women groups of NGOs/GOB and the household owners of outreach sites as community mobilizers. CARE provided training for transfer of skill to the MOHFW. It maintained link with community and the MOHFW field workers. CARE was found to provide technical assistance to MOHFW for planning and implementation of child survival services. It also provide technical assistance for resource mobilization and organizing out-reach programs.

Both the NGOs were found to undertake the same activities in both the projects. The concerned NGOs were involved in collection of grassroots level information for planning and diagnosis assessment. For

service delivery and effective community participation, both the NGOs undertook community-based awareness training and mobilization programs. The concerned NGOs provided assistance in designing an operational plan for the GOB officials at the field level. Management support and training were also provided by those NGOs to the field staff of the GOB. These NGOs gave assistance towards the functionnaires of GOB in developing and installing a monitoring, evaluation and feedback system.

The NGOs also provided technical assistance to the professional staff of GOB in planning, decision making, action plan design and operational plan development. These NGOs also imparted on-the-job training to the GOB field staff.

9.7 Empirical Analysis

Keeping in view the objectives of the study, we carried out a questionnaire survey seeking the opinion and perception of the both GOB and NGO officials participating in the project. The respondents were asked some structured questions.

A total of 90 respondents, taking 30 each from CARE, BRAC and MOHFW field offices involved with those two projects were interviewed by me and my research associates. In addition, we made several observation visits to the project areas. I also held meetings and interview sessions with the senior officials of CARE, BRAC and MOHFW at the national headquarters in Dhaka.

From the field visit, observation and interview, we wanted to focus on the necessity of GO-NGO collaboration, which the concerned persons can from their experience. For this reason, the respondents were asked whether GO-NGO collaboration is needed in organizing and managing development projects in Bangladesh, considering the expanding role and responsibilities and demand for services by common people.

Table-9.2: **Response regarding the need for GO-NGO collaboration**

	NGO Officials	GOB Officials
	(in %)	(in %)
Yes	98	72
No	0	15
Not Sure	2	13
Total	100	100

The answer represents the reality of the situation. 98 percent NGO officials and 72 percent GOB officials think that GO-NGO collaboration is needed in Bangladesh with a view to organizing and managing development projects properly. Only 15 percent GOB officials don't feel the necessity of such collaboration. 13 percent GOB officials and 2 percent NGO officials are not sure about it.

So, it can be said that in the present socio-economic context of Bangladesh, GO-NGO collaboration is a felt need, an appropriate necessity of time. Most of the respondents of both the counterparts feel that necessity.

Given the nature of bureaucratic inertia, lack of logistics and other supplementary skills, in general, a significant proportion of the field level functionaries of both GOB and NGOs (BRAC and CARE) involved in the collaborative projects noted the importance and necessity of such collaboration projects in the health sector. Almost all respondents from the NGOs noted the importance of such a few GOB collaborative projects, though functionaries of GOB hold some reservations regarding the strengths of such collaboration with the NGOs. They noted that the NGOs are over stretching their functional boundaries and trying to marginalize the efforts of the GOB at the grass root levels.

GOB and the NGO functionaries however noted several strengths of such collaborative projects. According to their opinion, collaboration between GO and NGO has developed a unique grass root level network for program implementation. They made the assessment that the approach of GO-NGO collaboration has introduced an innovative program management style in Bangladesh. One of the major strength of such collaboration is it has created a condition of mutual learning and transfer of knowledge and technology both ways. Collaboration also has ensured quick response to local need and the system has helped in mobilizing local opinion and ideas. As a result, it has reduced the extent of red-tappism and ensured greater degree of people's participation. Moreover, GO-NGO collaboration has introduced an efficient planning system and has enhanced the over all efficiency in identification of target groups/ clientele needs and problems. Through collaboration a professional environment and capacity for monitoring and evaluation has created. Such collaborative program has enhanced local accountability in program delivery system.

Some weaknesses of the collaborative model have also been identified by the responds. First of all, the respondents identified that collaboration has developed inter-organizational conflict. It has created a scenario of donor dependency on the part of the GOB as well as NGOs.

Besides, in the name of dual supervision and monitoring it has created a situation of mutual mistrust. Most of the respondents thought that it is not cost-effective and has created a dualism in program operations. Because of personality clashes between the GOB and NGO program officials, decisions in many cases are delayed and project implementation is affected. Because of strong donor connections, NGOs tend to dominate the implementation and decision making process. The system of joint/ dual supervision and monitoring have created some confusion in terms of unity and chain of command; and. because of design errors in supervision, support and decision-making process, the model has created a situation of cold war between the GOB and NGO staff. A strong "we" and "they" feeling are persistent in the project. This feeling of mistrust has affected the performance of the project significantly.

Probable Successful Mechanisms of Collaboration

The researcher tried to highlight the probable successful mechanisms of GOB-NGO collaboration. The respondents were asked to identify the most successful mechanisms of GOB-NGO collaboration. Table 9.3 represents the opinions of GOB as well as NGO functionaries in this regard.

Table-9.3: Successful mechanisms of GO-NGO collaboration (%)

	Agree		Not Sure		Disagree	
	GOB	NGO	GOB	NGO	GOB	NGO
Consultation during the planning stage	78	90	5	5	17	5
Financial help/ support to NGO	63	95	22	5	15	0
Contractual collaboration with NGO	82	100	10	0	8	0
Contract with NGOs for Monitoring	67	93	10	5	23	2
Joint Monitoring & Evaluation	75	85	8	2	17	13

The above table reveals that most of the GOB functionaries (82 per cent) are in favor of contractual collaboration with NGOs. 78 per cent GOB functionaries agreed to consult with NGOs during planning stage for successful GO-NGO collaboration. 75 per cent GOB functionaries are in favor of joint monitoring and evaluation. On the other hand majority of GOB functionaries (23 per cent) didn't agree to contract with NGOs only for monitoring.

Though most of GOB functionaries identified contractual collaboration as successful mechanism for GO-NGO collaboration only

63 per cent GOB functionaries are in favor of providing financial help towards the NGOs which is the opinion of minority of GOB officials. 15 per cent GOB officials strongly disagreed on this point. The opinions of GOB functionaries about GO-NGO collaboration highlight those GOB functionaries also in favor of contractual collaboration with the NGOs. They also want NGOs to be a contractor of Government service in the name of collaboration.

Data also reveals that 100 per cent NGO functionaries gave their support for contractual collaboration and 95 percent of them have supported to provide financial help or support to NGOs to make GO-NGO collaboration successful. 93 percent NGO functionaries agreed to make contract with NGOs for monitoring. And 90 percent NGO functionaries expressed their opinion that to consult with NGOs during planning stage. On the other hand 13 percent NGO functionaries disagreed at joint monitoring and supervision.

It is also obsreved that 100 per cent of NGO functionaries identified contractual collaboration as the most successful mechanism for GO-NGO collaboration. Financial support from Government is also identified by them as a successful mechanism of GO-NGO collaboration. These data reflects that they want only contractual collaboration and financial help from GOB. They don't want to work jointly. They want to be a GO contractor, not a real partner.

Potential Sectors for Collaboration

The researcher also wanted to identify the potential sectors for GO-NGO collaborative programs. With a view to collecting data in this respect, the author asked the respondents to make a priority list among the nine sectors. The following table-9.4 represents the ranking of the respondents. This ranking has been made from the assessment of the concerned people of both the sectors who are working in two collaborative projects .The ranking highlights their opinions on the potential sectors or areas of GO-NGO collaboration.

Table-9.4: Potential Sectors/Areas of Collaboration.

Both GOB and NGO Functionaries				
Areas	Ranking (%)			
	1st	*2nd*	*3rd*	*4th*
Agricultural Development	71	17	12	0
Health & Family Planning	85	11	4	0
Mass education	88	8	4	0
Human Resource Development	56	23	14	7
Income Generating Activities	95	5	0	0
Poverty Alleviation	95	5	0	0
Social Forestry	77	17	6	0
Environment	67	21	12	0
Infrastructure development	55	23	14	8

Most of the respondents (95 per cent) simultaneously identified "poverty alleviation" and "income generating activities" as the top priority sector of GO-NGO collaboration. 88 per cent respondents identified "mass-education" and 85 percent respondents highlighted "health and family planning" as the top pritory and potential area for GO-NGO collaboration.

As the second preferred sector, "human resource development" and "infrastructure development" simultaneously topped the list. 23 per cent respondents identified them as the second preferred sector for GO-NGO collaboration. 21 per cent respondents identified "environment" and 17 per cent respondents simultaneously identified "agricultural development" and "social forestry" as the second preferred area for collaboration.

"Human resource development" and "infrastructure development" again simultaneously topped the list as the third preferred potential sector. 14 per cent respondents expressed the opinions.

The opinions of the respondents reflect the fact that in the present socio-economic context of Bangladesh poverty alleviation, income-generating activities, mass-education and health and family planning - these four sectors seemed to be more potential sectors for GO-NGO collaboration. Interestingly GOB has certain collaborative programs in these sectors with some NGOs.

Impacts of GO-NGO Collaboration

One of the main objectives of the empirical study is to focus on the impacts of GO-NGO collaboration. With a view to assessing the positive as well as negative impacts of GO-NGO collaboration, the author and her research assistants asked the responds several questions. Both the

counterparts are asked to assess the positive impacts of GO-NGO collaboration programs from their working experiences.

The following table 9.5 represents the assessment of GOB as well as NGO functionaries in this regard.

Table-9.5: Positive Impacts of GO-NGO Collaboration

Positive Impacts	Agree (%)		Not Sure (%)		Disagree (%)	
	GOB	NGO	GOB	NGO	GOB	NGO
Peoples participation	81	100	11	0	8	0
Quick response to local need	76	85	21	15	3	10
Local resource mobilization	81	79	9	11	10	14
Access to GOB line agencies	73	78	22	8	5	0
Exchange of ideas	92	79	4	11	4	10
Mutual support	80	82	13	8	7	3
Reduce red-tappism	47	82	26	15	27	0

The above data show that most of GOB functionaries (92 per cent) made an assessment that GO-NGO collaboration ensures exchange of ideas between the two sectors. 81 percent GOB functionaries identified simultaneously that collaborative programs ensure peoples participation and also ensure local resource mobilization. 80 per cent respondents viewed that it ensures mutual support between the two sectors.

On the other hand, 26 per cent GOB functionaries were not sure and 27 per cent of them strongly disagreed that collaborative programs can reduce red tappism. 22 per cent respondents were not sure that GO-NGO collaboration ensures easy access of NGOs to GOB line agencies. 10 per cent respondents didn't think that collaboration could ensure local resource mobilization.

The above table also shows that 100 per cent NGO functionaries strongly perceived that GO-NGO collaboration ensures peoples participation, which is one of the core strategies for development. 85 percent NGO functionaries thought that it ensures quick response to local need but 15 per cent NGO functionaries were not sure about the output. According to the view of 82 per cent NGO staff, GO-NGO collaboration ensures mutual support between the two sectors and it also help to reduce red- tappism.

On the other hand, 45 per cent NGO functionaries were not sure and 15 per cent NGO functionaries strongly disagreed that through GO-NGO collaboration, it become possible to create pressure on GOB policies. 14 per cent respondents also strongly disagreed that GO-NGO collaboration could make easy access to GOB line agencies.

From the evaluation of the positive impacts of GO-NGO collaboration, made by the representatives of both the sectors, the author identified that GO-NGO collaboration can ensure peoples' participation, can ensure exchange of ideas and mutual support. But most of the respondents of both sectors strongly disagreed and expressed their doubt that collaborative programs can reduce red tappism and help easy access of NGOs to GOB line agencies.

Identifying the positive impacts of GO-NGO collaboration, simultaneously the author wanted to focus on the evaluation of the respondents of both the sectors regarding the weakness or the negative impacts of GO-NGO collaboration. The following Table 9.6 reflects the views of GOB as well as NGO functionaries in this regard.

Table-9.6: Negative Impacts of Collaborative Programs

Negative Impacts	Agree(%)		Not sure(%)		Disagree(%)	
	GOB	NGO	GOB	NGO	GOB	NGO
Political interference	20	4	0	25	80	71
Undue interference of the NGOs and the donors	35	12	0	28	65	60
Delay in project completion	5	0	22	28	73	72
Undue pressure	21	0	25	43	54	57
Increased corruption	0	0	0	9	100	91
Creation a new elite class	0	0	0	0	100	100
Influence of failed project	0	0	15	3	85	97

The above data show that 35 per cent GOB functionaries evaluated that GO-NGO collaboration could make undue interference of NGOs and donors. 21 per cent respondents identified undue pressure as the negative impacts of collaborative programs whereas 25 per cent were not sure and 54 per cent disagreed on the point. 20 per cent GOB staff feared about political interference as a result of GO-NGO collaboration, but 80 per cent rejected the weakness. On the other hand 100 per cent GOB staff simultaneously disagreed that GO-NGO collaboration could create a new elite class and can increase corruption. 85 per cent respondents didn't agree that any unsuccessful project could influence GO-NGO collaboration process.

Here, the data of the above table show that 12 per cent NGO functionaries thought that collaboration could make undue interference of NGOs and donors. 28 per cent were not sure and 60 per cent disagreed at this point. Only 4 per cent respondents agreed that collaboration increased political interference but 25 per cent were not sure and 71 per cent didn't agree with this negative impact.

On the other hand 100 per cent respondents strongly disagreed that collaboration can create a new elite class. 97 per cent NGO functionaries didn't agree that any unsuccessful project could influence collaboration process and 91 per cent of them disagreed that collaboration could increase corruption.

Analyzing the views presnted by NGOs well as GOB functionaries regarding the negative impacts of GO-NGO collaboration, the author identified undue interference of NGOs and donors and political interference are two common weaknesses identified by both the counterparts. Most of the respondents were not sure about undue pressure as a negative impact of collaborative programs.

Degree of Influence of GOB on NGO Activities

One of main aims of the study is to highlight the degree of influence of GOB on NGO activities. The researcher classified the project cycle into five stages and the respondents were asked to assess the degree of GOB's influence on NGOs activities. The respondents were NGO staff. The answers were presented in the following table.

Table- 9.7: Assessment of Influence of GOB on the Activities of NGOs.

	Degree of influence of the GOB on NGO activities				
	Very High	High	Moderate	Little	Not at all
Project design	5	19	22	54	0
Project approval	21	19	32	23	5
Site selection	4	7	9	36	44
Project implementation	2	5	9	58	26
Project Monitoring/ evaluation	9	5	8	63	15

Data reveals that the degree of influence is very high at the time of project approval. 21 per cent respondents expressed the view. 19 per cent respondents identified that the influence is high at the time of project design and also at the time of project approval. 63 per cent respondents thought that the influence is little at the time of project monitoring.

From the above data, it became clear that GOB is very much interested and careful about the project approval and project design of a collaborative program. So they influenced the project very much during these stages. At the time of implementation and monitoring of a collaborative program, GOB becomes less interested and so their influence is identified as little by their counterparts.

Areas of Collaboration in Development Management

The researcher intended to identify the functional areas where NGOs can complement GOB through collaboration. With a view to identifying the functional areas specifically, the researcher classified the collaborative programs into three stages: planning, implementation and evaluation.

Table-9.8: Areas where NGOs can complement GOB

	Agree (%)	Not Sure (%)	Disagree (%)
Planning Stage			
Provide grassroots information	100	0	0
Represent local needs	92	18	0
Project planning	90	5	5
Identification target group	99	0	1
Implementation Stage			
Technical support	90	5	5
Financial Support	40	35	25
Resolve functional problems	95	5	0
Supplementary works during implementation	100	0	0
Evaluation stage			
Monitoring projects	22		43
Make evaluation	20		36
Provide feedback	78		6

At the planning stage, 100 per cent respondents strongly agreed that NGOs could complement GOB's activities by providing grassroots information. 99 per cent respondents agreed that NGOs can help GOB by identifying target groups, 92 per cent thought that by representing local needs NGOs can complement GOB's activities.

During the time of implementation, 100 per cent respondents agreed that NGOs could complement GOB's activities by doing supplementary works. By resolving functional problems, NGOs can complement GOB's activities at the time of project implementation, this view is represented by 95 per cent respondents. 90 per cent respondents thought NGOs could provide technical support toward GOB. On the other hand, 25 per cent (highest) strongly disagreed that NGOs can complement GOB functions through financial support.

At the evaluation stage, 78 per cent respondents thought that by providing feedback NGOs could help GOB. On the other hand 43 per cent disagreed that NGOs can complement GOB's activities through monitoring projects.

The data of the above table reveals that even NGO staffs think that NGOs can complement GOB's activities through collaboration during

planning and implementing stage. They gave emphasis on participation of NGOs during planning and implementation stage. Evaluation is given less importance, which expressed one of the major weaknesses of collaborative programs in Bangladesh.

Analysis of Attitudes

In general NGO staff hold a positive approach towards the project. They seem to be sincere and serious in the implementation process of the project. Because of a strict monitoring system for both operation management and staff control and accountability, the overall performance of the NGO staff are satisfactory and visible. Moreover for their working system the NGO staff have to develop a very harmonious relationship with the clientele.

GOB functionaries, on the other hand, appear to be passive and reluctant about the project. GOB field functionaries are found to be very much self-guarding and conservative as regards to the relationship with their NGO counterparts. A significant portion of the GOB staff interviewed by the researcher and her research assistants, seem to suffer from some kind of "superiority complex" as being more educated, trained and being a tenured GOvernment staff4. The GOB staff noted that NGO staff tend to over rule their decisions by making "undue interfere" in daily activities in the name of dual supervision. They also attempt to "steal away" the achievements and credits of the GOB field level functionaries.

However the attitude of the GOB officials vary at the upper level (mostly in the District and Directorate level). During our interviews with GOB officials at the upper level, we found them to be quite positive about the project. They appreciated the contributions made by NGO counterparts and noted that this type of project contributed a base for mutual benefit and learning to cater the need for challenging task of development management in Bangladesh.

Though it is very difficult to generalize the attitudes of GOB as well as NGO staff about GO-NGO collaboration; but most of them realize the need for collaboration.

Problems-Identified in Collaborative Programs

Based on our preliminary observations drawn from the case studies and opinion survey we may draw following conclusions:

- There appears to be some built-in design errors in the GO-NGO collaboration project model.
- Faulty design has caused problems of dual authority, supervision and decision making.

---

[4] In a traditional society like Bangladesh, a job in government service is always considered to be a matter of social prestige and recognition.

- GOB officials at the grass roots level have not been properly oriented about the spirit, content and operational modalities of the project.
- The GOB officials at the grass roots level never had any structured monitoring system to appraise their role and function. With the introduction of joint monitoring and supervision system, on-the-job training by an external agency, most MOHFW officials felt threaten and insecure and thus resisted the project.
- The project as a matter of fact failed to take into account the dominant bureaucratic culture of the GOB functionaries at the grass root levels.
- The NGO officials maintain very good relations with the clientele for their working system. They undertake extensive field visits and follow-up trips. NGO officials also enjoy a very good logistics support like transport, office and other support services. On the other hand their GOB counterparts do not have enough logistics support. Thus at the operational level, the GOB staff become "frustrated" and are "demoralized" and consequently developed a passive resistance to the project as such and NGO counter parts in particular.

Measures to address the problems

A major attempt has been taken to highlight the measures to address the problems that are found in the GO-NGO collaboration process. Observation and formal and informal discussion with the respondents enabled us to find out the measures. To solve the identified problems, concerned respondents in the light of their working experiences prescribed several measures.

They expressed a need to develop positive attitude of both counterparts towards the collaboration. Openness, welcome the ideas and opinions and giving recognition of the work for both counterparts become helpful to solve the behavioral problem sand also to increase the mutual understanding. Openness about the project objectives, policies and strategies would ensure better understanding between the two partners.

More training courses need to be arranged for GOB staff. Impartial and perfect situation analysis is to be recommended. Introduction of proper follow-up and monitoring system is necessary which would ensure the feedback of the programs and also help to remove the structural barrier of the system. The potentials of community workers need to be utilized.

9.7 Conclusion

Lack of response on the part of the public sector to meet the hopes, desires and aspirations of the poor of the society has been treated as one of the main reasons for the emergence and growth of NGOs in Bangladesh. The significant role played by the NGOs in this country can be explained through the "*consumer control theory*" This theory explain the existence of NGOs in terms of the patron-control, when the public and private sectors are unable to ensured the desired performance. Thus in the present socio-economic context of Bangladesh, NGOs have earned a significantly firm position and have played a catalyst role towards national development. In Bangladesh, the NGO sector can influence the mainstream of development through collaboration with official bodies. Greater collaboration can be beneficial to both the parties. Given the rich experiences of the NGOs in Bangladesh, it is difficult to ignore the role of NGOs in development management especially in a critical sector like health and family planning. Realizing the potentials of NGO sector, Government of Bangladesh has initiate to undertake various programs with NGOs. Donors play an important role for GOB-NGO collaboration. GOB has engaged different NGOs in various sectors of national development. A healthy GO-NGO relationship can only be conceived where both parties share common objectives and strategies. With a view to utilizing the potentials of both the sectors, a genuine partnership can be developed between NGOs and the GO on the basis of mutual respect, acceptance of autonomy, independence and pluralism of opinions and positions. Both the partners need to be recognized that collaboration is a long-term affair and it need to be developed on mutual trust and respect, which would ensure to utilize the potentials of both the sectors and also ensure mutual benefits.

The findings of the study indicate that the collaboration qualifies for some, but not all the conditions of institution building (IB). The model has indeed developed a new institutioanl framework. The second feature of institution building i.e., introduction of new strategy and tactics can also be traced in the model. The collaboration model however could not demonstrate any significant change and a major adatation during the implementation stage, which is indeed a variation from the IB approach. But the model has been fairly successful in installing some new values and approaches in the operational structure and processes, which again complements one of the major features of IB. However, it is very difficult to argue that the model has had enjoyed a strong political support from the national level. A thorough analysis of the background materials provide the evidence that the model was basically a "push-forward" idea

from the respective donor agencies. Thus strong political support and commitment a prerequisite for the IB approach is unfortunately missing in the emerging model of GO-NGO collaboration in the health sector. The final feature of IB is to establish a trust and confidence between the participants and administration. Objectively speaking, because of the built-in bureaucratic attitude, processes and practices of the GOB functionaries, this model has partially achieved this feature of IB. In the final analysis, the findings of the study reveal that the collaborative model in health sector does indicate some of the significant features of IB, though some supportive features and conditions are yet to be there. With the given premise and experience, a serious attempt and corresponding commitment on the part of the GOB and the NGO concerned could easily shape the collaboration into a full blown model of institutional approach of development management health sector.

Chapter 10
Conclusions and Recommendations

10.1 Introduction

Over time, the nature, scope and role of Public Administration have been changed gradually. The emergence of various new approaches of Public Administration such as Development Administration approach, New Public Administration approach, New Development Administration approach, have added new dimensions in this field. In keeping with the gradual shift of focus, nature, methods and parameters, Public Administration has changed and at the same time eventually accepted the role of the NGOs as partners in development.

From different perspectives, various schools of thought analyze the emergence and role of the NGOs. One school considers NGOs as a potential alternative institutional framework that can play a catalyst role for macro-level social transformation. Another school of thought acknowledges the role of the NGOs as efficient mobilizer and also effectively delivers the goods and services towards the poor rejects the idea that the NGOs can play a role in the process of social transformation. Again there is another school that raises the complaint against the NGOs that the NGOs serve the interest of international corporate capital. Whatever the analyses are, there has been a significant worldwide growth and expansion of the NGOs. They are treated as one of the primary institutional sectors alongside government and business.

Thus the significant emergence of the NGOs during recent years as a major collective actor in development activities and on public agenda in the developing countries can be identified as a significant political, social and economic trend. Limitation of government efforts towards development management encourages searching for alternative institutional framework all over the world. The NGOs are now recognized as organizations alternative to Government to address the needs of people otherwise unreached by official development programs. Governments are recognizing the need to work with the NGOs. The need for such collaboration to a great extent is supported by the major stakeholders, including donors, disadvantaged people themselves, and the civil society at large.

The changed international political philosophy and global environment help the worldwide growth of the NGOs. The NGOs are found to attract the attention of donors and at the same time achieve their trust. Though the NGOs have some limitations also, they can be able to earn their credibility as an actor in development scenario of the present global context.

The phenomenal growth of the NGOs in Bangladesh over the past two decades is attributed to two sources. The first is the limited success of the Government by itself to respond effectively to the enormous challenges of poverty. Thus an opportunity has been created for the NGOs in Bangladesh to play an important role in this context. The second is the emerging preference of multilateral and bilateral development partners for channeling foreign assistance through the NGOs as a result of the demonstrated effectiveness of many NGOs in delivering services to the poor.

Though in Bangladesh, the NGOs had been working in its traditional form since British period, the NGOs got a radical transformation that make them agents of development after the war of liberation in 1971. As the existing literature on the NGOs is scattered and incomplete, there are various estimates as to the total number of the NGOs in Bangladesh. It is difficult to get a precise number of the NGOs in Bangladesh. Most recent statistics indicate the number as high as 20000. The NGO activities cover 84 per cent of the total thanas in the country. It is estimated that the NGOs currently work in about 78 per cent of the villages in Bangladesh and about 24 million people benefited from their activities.

The significant role played by the NGOs in this country can be explained through the *consumer control theory.* This theory explains the existence of the NGOs in terms of the patron-control, when the public and private sectors are unable to ensure the desired performance. Thus in the present socio-economic context of Bangladesh, the NGOs have earned a significantly firm position and have played a catalyst role in the national development. In Bangladesh, the NGO sector can influence the mainstream of development through operation collaboration with official bodies. Greater collaboration can be beneficial to both the parties.

In Bangladesh, the NGOs are increasingly getting involved in development management. Poor management capacity and traditional bureaucratic system of GOB towards development management create an opportunity for flourishing other alternative institutional framework of development management. In Bangladesh, the NGO sector presents itself as a promising alternative institution in this respect. The NGOs working in this country have virtually grown into a movement.

Though the NGOs play an active role in the development process, there is a debate on their role in Bangladesh. From positive perspective, the NGOs are considered as competent, potential and essential agents in the transaction of national development. On the other hand, the efforts of the NGOs are identified as repetitious and insignificant from the negative perspective. However, the major contribution of the NGOs in this country perhaps lies in developing human potentials through building organizations of the poor. The contributions of the NGOs in Bangladesh to national development need to be recognized. From their grassroots experiences, the NGOs can complement the government efforts to improve the condition of the poor. Collaboration can utilize the potentials and advantages of both the sectors. GOB recognizes the contribution of the NGOs and also accepted them as partners of development.

GO-NGO collaboration becomes a common phenomenon in many developing countries. Asian NGOs collaborated more than often with Governments than their counterparts in other regions. Many collaborative programs have been undertaken in Philippines and India. Bangladesh has already experienced some successful GO-NGO collaborative programs in the field of health and family planning, education, agriculture, employment generation, environment etc.

Globally the NGOs play a prodigious role in health and family planning sector. The NGOs enjoy some advantages over Governments and donors in their ability to deliver health care and family planning services towards the poor. Playing a catalyst role in health and family planning sector, the NGOs have become able to influence Government's policies in many developing countries in this regard.

The main focus of the book is on the collaborative programs of GOB and the NGOs in health and family planning sector. A preference for the NGO as an option for delivery of public services is now emerging as a common strategy for donor agencies in Bangladesh. Here an attempt has been made to examine the institutional features and viability of GO-NGO collaboration as an institutional model in health sector development management in Bangladesh. To analyze the institutional viability of collaboration model, the researcher primarily focused on the main features of the collaborative model and made an attempt to analyze its viability as a model of collaboration in the IB perspective.

For this purpose, two projects run by BRAC and CARE in collaboration with Ministry of Health and Family Welfare have been taken as case studies. Prime objectives of these collaborative GO-NGO projects have been to supplement GOB's family planning program and child care in peripheral areas; enhance the quality of care of these

services; implement innovative means for social mobilization; work towards increased community involvement and sustainability of programs effects and achievements.

Both GOB and the NGOs (BRAC and CARE) officials involved in the collaborative projects in principle noted the importance and necessity of such collaborative projects in health sector. However, some institutional/structural weaknesses have been identified in the model. The projects, as a matter of fact, failed to take into account the dominant bureaucratic culture of the GOB functionaries at the grassroots level.

Because of design errors in supervision, support and decision making process, the existing model has also created a situation of cold war between the GOB and the NGO staff which resulted in a strong "we" and "they" situation and a feeling of mistrust ultimately causing the performance of the project significantly.

Given the rich experiences of the NGOs in Bangladesh, it is difficult to ignore the role of the NGOs in development management especially in a critical sector like health and family planning. With a view to utilizing the potentials of both the sectors, a genuine partnership can be developed between the NGOs and the Government on the basis of mutual trust, respect, and acceptance of autonomy, independence and pluralism of opinions and positions.

Based on the observations of the above study, the following broad conclusions can be drawn:

In line with the global trends, the NGOs in Bangladesh are emerging as a strong contender of resources and increasingly getting recognition by the donor communities.

Government of Bangladesh has also in principle accepted the NGOs as partner of development. but does not, as yet, have any specific policy as how the NGOs should involve in development activities. Consequently, the NGOs are getting involved in almost all development activities in the peripheral Bangladesh.

The NGOs in Bangladesh do have proven records of achievements in organizing poverty alleviation projects, income generating activities for the poor and disadvantaged and community mobilization. However, in health and family planning sector the role and involvement of the NGOs are limited. Though two leading NGOs- BRAC and CARE have shown spectacular success in implementing the national immunization and also maternal and child health care and family planning programs, rest of the local and national NGOs have not been able to show such significant achievement.

Both CHILD and FP-FP projects have contributed in enhancing the functional capabilities of the GOB to a certain extent but also shown mutual mistrust, an attitude to dominate the implementation and decision making process to some extent and have caused "dissatisfaction" among the participating officials at the operational level.

From the study, it can be said that the GOB-NGO collaborative projects are running through an emerging model. There are some built-in design-errors in the model which include inter-organizational conflict; a dualism in program operation management, negligence towards monitoring and evaluation from GOB side; delayed decision making; confusion in chains of command; problems of dualism in authority; and lack of orientation of GOB staff about the spirit, content and operational modalities of the collaborative programs.

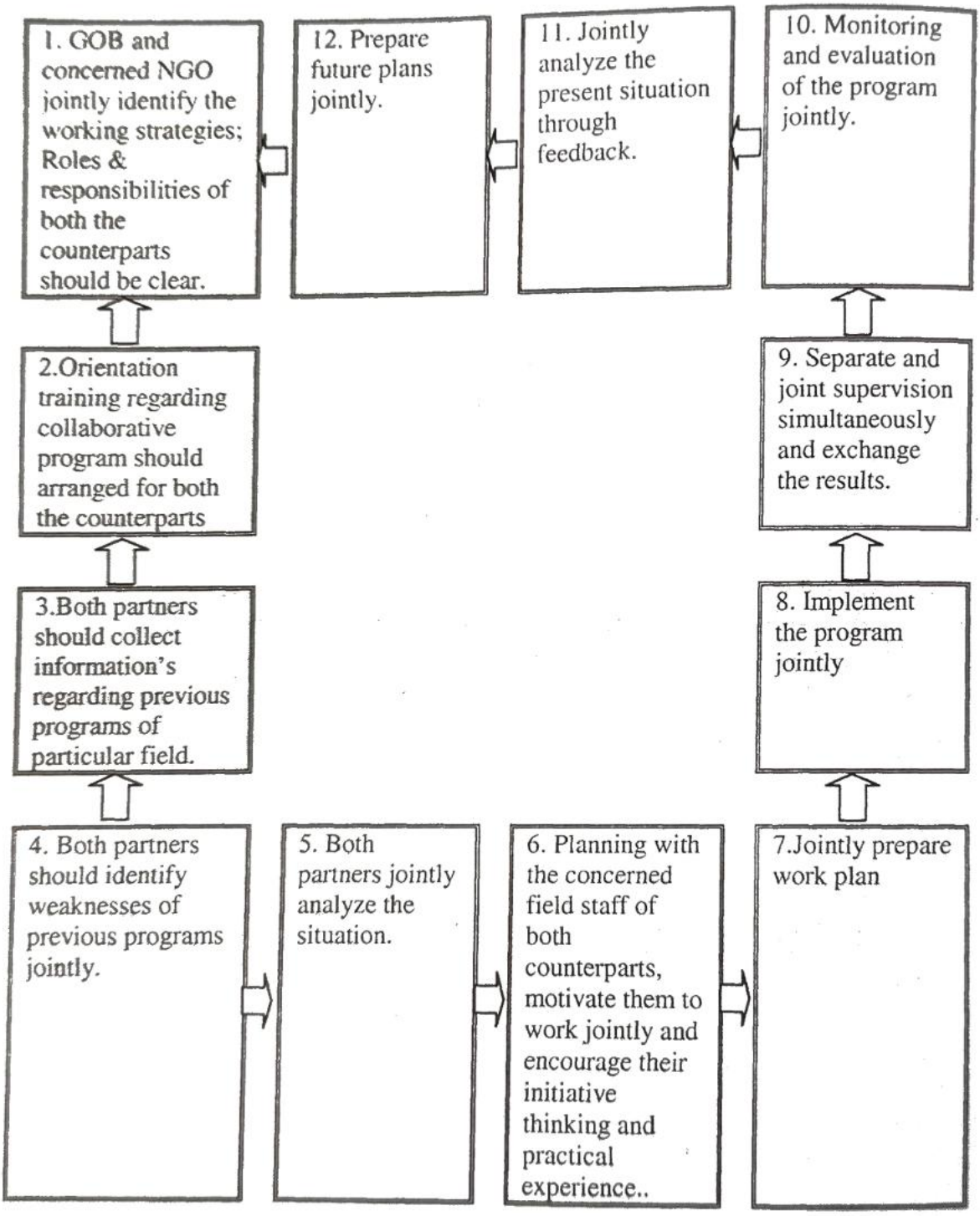
The working GO-NGO collaboration model with all its limitations can emerge as an institutionally viable model in development management through addressing these problems. The findings of the study reveals that the collaborative model in health sector indicate some of the important features of IB. Some supportive features and conditions are though yet to be there, a serious attempt and corresponding commitment on the part of both the counterparts could make it possible to shape the collaboration in the full blown model of institutional approach of development management in health sector.

With a view to addressing the existing problems, the following measures can be followed:

- Review of the basis premises and working assumptions of the collaboration project, which enable the concerned counterparts to have a clear idea about their respective roles and responsibilities.
- Examine carefully the project operational manual and the built-in structural limitations of the project in order to find out probable solutions based on the practical experience of the concerned functionaries of both the counterparts.
- To organize an elaborate reorientation and de-briefing sessions for both GOB and NGO functionaries at the grass roots level.
- To bring more transparencies and openness as regards to the project goals, objectives, policies and strategies–which would develop a better understanding between the two partners.

With a view to making the existing collaboration model more practical, useful and active, the following alternative working flow is prescribed to follow.

Figure-7: Prescribed Alternative Working Flow for GO-NGO Collaboration


1. GOB and concerned NGO jointly identify the working strategies; Roles & responsibilities of both the counterparts should be clear.
12. Prepare future plans jointly.
11. Jointly analyze the present situation through feedback.
10. Monitoring and evaluation of the program jointly.
2.Orientation training regarding collaborative program should arranged for both the counterparts
9. Separate and joint supervision simultaneously and exchange the results.
3.Both partners should collect information's regarding previous programs of particular field.
8. Implement the program jointly
4. Both partners should identify weaknesses of previous programs jointly.
5. Both partners jointly analyze the situation.
6. Planning with the concerned field staff of both counterparts, motivate them to work jointly and encourage their initiative thinking and practical experience..
7.Jointly prepare work plan

The prescribed working flow would be able to address the existing problems of collaboration model. There are twelve stages in this prescribed working process and in every stage, both the counterparts are suggested to work jointly. One of the major weaknesses of the existing model is the faulty design that has caused problems of dual authority, supervision and decision-making. In the prescribed process, both the

partners begin their collaborative work through identifying the wo strategies jointly. In this stage, both the counterparts would also hav clear idea about their respective roles and responsibilities in collaborati program. This kind of openness about the project objectives, strategies and clear idea about their respective responsibilities would ensure better understanding between the two partners.

In the second stage, suggestion has been given to arrange orientation training for both concerned GOB as well as NGO personnel about the collaboratve program. This suggestion would solve another major problem. GOB officials at the grass roots level have not been properly oriented about the spirit, content and operational modalities of the project. So, the GOB functionaries appear to be passive and reluctant about the project. GOB field functionaries are found to be very much self-guarding and conservative as regards to the relationship with their NGO counterparts. Through arranging orientation training, the prescribed process would be able to solve the problem.

The GOB officials at the grass-roots level never had any structured monitoring system to appraise their role and function. With the introduction of joint monitoring and supervision system, the alternative process would also solve another weakness of the existing collaboration model. Moreover this prescribed process is expected to introduce a favourable environment for GO-NGO collaboration in the development secnerio of Bangladesh.

10.2 Recommendations

From the study, it can be said that GOB-NGO collaboration would be able to exert positive impact towards removing the weaknesses of GOB and limitations of the NGOs. Experience has shown, however, that it is simply impossible to come up with a set of general recommendations, which would be appropriate in all circumstances. Solutions, which work well in one context, may perform poorly in others. There is a felt need to examine the project operational manual and address the built-in structural limitations of the projects to make it a viable model. However, with a view to promoting an effective and viable collaborative model from the experience of above mention study, the following suggestions may be made.

Collaborative relationship between GOB and NGO need to be formalized within a legal framework. For this purpose, an institutional arrangement is very much essential for successful GOB-NGO collaboration model. At the same time, all existing laws and regulations concerning NGOs need to be harmonized.

Establishment of a separate planning and monitoring cell is very much essential for effective collaboration, which is responsible for the planning, evaluation and monitoring of all collaborative programs with the NGOs from GOB side. While drawing up collaborative schemes, role and responsibilities of participating agencies should be clearly defined.

Local level GOB officials need to actively participate in the collaborative programs. Arrangement for orientation program is needed for concerned GOB and NGO staff at the grassroots level with a view to making them aware of the spirit, content and operational modalities of the collaborative programs. Joint orientation program would be helpful to remove the mutual mistrust of both the counterparts. With a view to ensuring fruitful collaboration, the NGOs also need to participate at the evaluation and monitoring stages.

Both counterparts need to realize that a genuine partnership/ collaboration is a long-term affair. Openness about the project objectives, policies and strategies would ensure good understanding between the two partners. More transparency is needed in collaborative programs.

Donors may play an important role by encouraging both GOB and NGOs to undertake more collaborative programs.

NGOs can be made to accountable to GOB not as a subordinate since there is no superior-subordinate relationship between them but as a partner who has been delegated to undertake development projects for GOB.

10.3 Future Research Agenda

This research has established that NGOs do play a significant role in organizing and managing development projects at micro level. But now it has been able to establish a social and political credibility. However, the issues related to the role of NGO in strengthening local level governance, civil socity at the grass roots level and the institutional relationship between the NGOs and the local elected bodies and other indigenous institution have not been appropriately examined yet. Since NGOs are primarily working at the local level with grassroots based beneficiaries, further studies should therefore address the institutional viability and modalities of interactions between the NGOs and local bodies, in particular the union parishads and the newly reconstituted Upazila parishad.

Bibliography

Abed, F. H. et. al, (1984). "NGO Efforts and Planning: Development as an Experimental Process," paper presented at a Seminar on Focus on 50 Million: Poverty in Bangladesh, organized by ADAB, Dhaka.

Abernethy, V. (1993). "The World's Women: Fighting A Battle, Losing the War," *Journal of Women's Health*, Vol. 2, No. 1.

Adnan, S. et. al., (1992). *Peoples' Participation, NGOs and the Flood Action Plan* (An Independent Review), Dhaka: Oxfam.

Ahmed, Z. (1989). "NGO Approval: Is It a Formal Theory of Development," *Social Studies*, Vol. 3.

Ahmed, M. (1980). "Introduction" in P. H. Coombs ed., *Meeting the Basic Needs of the Rural Poor*, New York: Pergamon Press.

Ahmed, V. and M. Bamberger, (1989) in EDI seminar series : "Monitoring And Evaluation Projects: The South Asian Experience," Washington D.C.: World Bank.

Aminuzzaman, S. (1992). "Project Management in Bangladesh: A Critical Analysis," *Development Review,* Vol. 4, No. 2, July.

Aminuzzaman, S. and E. Nunn. (1993). *Institutional Framework of Poverty Alleviation in Bangladesh*, SIFAD TA Project, UNDP, Dhaka.

Aminuzzaman, Salahuddin, (1993). "Role of NGOs in Development of Bangladesh," Seminar Paper presented to LOF SENTREATE, Nov 1993.

Aminuzzaman, S. (1993). "Local Government in Bangladesh: The State of the Art", *Asian Profile*, Vol. 37, No.1.

Aminuzzaman, S. (1993). *Institutional Framework of Poverty Alleviation in Bangladesh*, Planning Commission, Dhaka

Aminuzzaman, S. (1994). "Structural Adjustment Program and its Impact on Bangladesh Public Administration" *Philippine Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 28, No. 3, July.

Aminuzzaman, S. (1995). "Public Administration, NGO and Development: A Conceptual Overview", Dhaka: Working Paper, The Bergen-Dhaka Administrative Development Project.

Aminuzzaman, S. (1996). Project Management in Bangladesh: A Hand-note, (P.A.408, Public Policy) Dept. of Public Administration, Dhaka University.

Aminuzzaman, S. (1996). "NGOs and Development Management in Bangladesh," *Administrative Change*, Vol 24, No.3.

ANGOC. (1984). Status papers on *NGO Involvement in Rural Development: A perspective of Ten countries in Asia,* ANGOC: Philippines.

Asian Development Bank (1989). *Co-operation with NGOs in Agriculture and Rural Development in Bangladesh,* National Support services, ADB, March.

Asian Development Bank (ADB), (1992). *An Assessment of the Role and Impact of NGOs in Bangladesh,* Asian Development Bank.

Association of Development Agencies in Bangladesh (ADAB), (1994). *Fact Sheet on NGO Activities,* Dhaka,: ADAB.

Barroso, C. (1987). "Innovations in Reproductive Health and Child Survival," (paper presented to the Conference on the Association for Women in Development, Washington, D.C., 16th April.

Benger, P. L. and Meuhans, R. (1984). "To Empower People" in Korten, D. C. and R. Klans (eds.) *People Centered Development: Contribution Towards Theory and Planning Frameworks*, Hartford: Kumarian Press.

Ben-Ner, A. (1986). "Non-profit Organizations: Why do they Exist in Market Economies?" in Susan Rose - Ackerman, (ed.), *The Economics of Non-profit Institutions*, New York: Oxford University Press.

Bhatnagar, B. (1991). *Non-governmental Organizations and World Bank supported projects in Asia: Lesson Learned*, Technical Department, Asia Region, World Bank.

Bhattacharya, D. and S. Ahmed (1995). *GO-NGO collaboration in Human Development Initiatives in Bangladesh*: BIDS Research report No. 139, Dhaka: BIDS

Bowden, P. (1990). "NGOs in Asia: Issues in Development." *Public Administration and Development*, Vol. 10, No.1, London.

Brandt Commission. (1980). North-South: A Program For Survival, London: Pan Books.

Bratton, M. (1989). "The Politics of GO-NGO Relations in Africa', *World Development*, Vol. 17, No. 4.

Brinkerhoff, D. W. (1986). "The Evaluation of Current Perspectives on Institutional Development: An Organizational Focus," in Brinkerhoff, D.W. and Gancia Z.,J. C. (eds.) *Politics, Projects and People: Institutional Development in Haiti*, Pracger, New York.

Brodhead, T. (1987). "NGOs: In One Year, Out of Others?" *World Development*, Vol. 15, (Supplement).

Brodhead, T. and H.B. Copely with A. M. Lambert, (1988). *Bridges of Hope?* Canadian Voluntary Agencies and the Third World.

Brown, L.D. (1988). "Private Voluntary Organizations and Development Partnerships", in Khardwalla, P.K. (et. al.) *Social Development: A New Role for the Organizational Science*, New Delhi.

Brown, L. and D. C. Korten, (1991). "Working More Effectively with Non-Governmental Organizations" in S. Paul (et.al.) *Non-Governmental Organizations and the World Bank: Cooperation for Development*, Washington D. C.: World Bank.

Caldwell, J. C., I.O. Orubuloye, and P. Caldwell, (1992). "Fertility Decline in Africa: A New type Transition?" *Population and Development Review*, June.

Carroll, T. (1992). *Intermediate NGOs: Characteristics of Strong Performances*. West Harfort, Connecticut Kumirian Press.

Cernea, M. M. (1988). *Non-Governmental Organizations and Local Development*, World Bank Discussion Papers, Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

Cernea, M. M. (1989). *Non-Governmental Organizations and Local Development*, Washington D.C.: World Bank.

Chadha, S. (1989). *Managing Projects in Bangladesh: A Scenario Analysis of Institutional Environment for Development Projects*, University Press Limited, New Delhi.

Chenery, et.al.(1974). *Redistribution with Growth*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Chowdhury, S. I. (1987) "NGOs in Bangladesh" A Discussion Paper presented at seminar on NGOs in Bangladesh, organized by *Lokjon*, April 20-23, Dhaka.

Chowdhury, S. I. (1987). "NGOs in Development" at a Seminar on NGOs in Bangladesh, organised by *Lokjon*, April 20-23, Dhaka.

Clark, J. (1991). *Democratizing Development the Role of Voluntary Organizations*, Connecticut. Kumarian Press.

Clark, J. (1995). "The State, Popular Participation and the Voluntary Sector," *World Development*, vol. 23, No. 4.

Clements, D.J. and T.A. Khan, (1985). *NGOs and the Ministry of Agriculture (A Survey of Agriculturally oriented NGOs in Bangladesh)*, Dhaka, Ministry of Agriculture.

Counins W. (1991). "Non-governmental Initiatives" in ADB, *The Urban Poor and Basic Infrastructure Services in Asia the Pacific*. Asian Development Bank, Manila.

Creenica, F. V. (1994). "The Accountability of NGOs", *Philippine Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 38, No. 3, July, Manila.

Demeny, (1992). "Policies Seeking a Reduction of High Fertility: A Case for the Demand Side." *Population and Development Review*, June.

Dessing, M. K. (1988). *Entrepreneurship and Private sector Development: Support to Small and Micro-enterprises*, Industry and Energy Division, African Technical Department. Washington, D.C.: World Bank

Douglas, J. (1987). "Political Theories of Nonprofit Organizations," *World Development*, Vol 15, (Supplement).

Drabek, A.G. (1987). "Development Alternatives: The Challenge for NGOs-An Overview of the Issues" *World Development*, vol. 15 (supplement).

Durning, A. (1989) "Action at the Grass-roots: Fighting Poverty and Environmental Decline." *World-Wide Paper No. 88*, Washington, D.C.: World Watch Institute.)

Edward W. (1962). "Development Administration: A New Focus for Research" in F. Heady and S. Stokes (ed.), *Papers In Comparative Public Administration*, University of Michigan.

Edwards, M. and D. Hulme, (1992). "Scaling-up NGO Impact on Development: Learning from Experience," *Development in Practice*, Vol. 2, No.2.

Esman, M.J. (1988). "The Maturing of Development Administration", *Public Administration and Development*, vol. 8, No. 2.

Esman, M. J. and Uphoff, N. (1984). *Local Organizations: Intermediates in Rural Development*. Ithaca, NY: Rural Development Committee, Cornell University.

Farrington J. and Bebbington A. (ed.), (1993). *Reluctant Partners: Non-governmental Organizations, The state and Sustainable Agricultural Development*, Non-governmental organizations series, ODI, London.

Farthworth, E.G. (1991). "The Inter-American Development Bank's Interactions with Non-Governmental Environmental Organizations". Paper presented at the Third consultative Meeting on Environment, Caracus.

Fernandez, A. P. (1987). "NGOs in South Asia: Peoples Participation and Partnership", *World Development*, Vol. 15, (supplement).

Ganlao, E. D. (1987). "Indigenuous NGOs as Strategic Institutions: Managing the Relationship with Government and Resource Agencies," *World Development*, vol.15 (supplement).

Germaine, A. and J. Ordway, (1989). *Population Control and Women's Health: Balancing the Scales*, New York: International Women's Health Coalition, in cooperation with the Overseas Development Council.

GOB, (1990). *In Guide to NGOs Bangladesh*; NGOAB

GOB, (1991). *The Fourth Five Year Plan 1990-1995*, Planning Commission, Ministry of Planning, GOB, Dhaka.

GOB, (1997). *The Fifth Five Year Plan 1997-2001*, (draft), Planning Commission, Ministry of Planning, GOB, Dhaka.

Goulet, (1969). "The Meaning of Development", *International Development Review*, vol. 11, No. 4.

Government of Pakistan,(1956).Planning Board. *First Five Year Plan*(1955-1960).

Hansmann, H. (1980). "The Role of Non-profit Enterprise". *The Yale Lan Journal*, Vol. 89, No.5.

Harrison, D. (1988). *The Sociology of Modernization and Development*. London, Penguin Books.

Hasan, S., G. Mulamoottil and J.E. Kersell (1992). "Voluntary Organizations in Bangladesh: A profile, " *Environment and Urbanization*, vol. 4, No. 2.

Hasan, S. (1993), "Voluntarism and Rural Development in Bangladesh", *The Asian Journal of Public Administration*, vol. 15,No. 1, June.

Hewitt, T. (1994). Paper that was presented in the Development Management Interactive Workshop in London on 28th June, 1994.

Huda, K.S. (1987). "The Development of NGOs in Bangladesh," *ADAB NEWS*, May-June.

Huda, K.S. and A. Hussain (1990). "Genesis and Growth of NGOs in Bangladesh" *ADAB NEWS*. May - June.

Hulme, D. and Turner, M. (1990). *Sociology and Development: Theories, Policies and Practices*, New York: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

Huq, M. F (1991). *Towards Sustainable Development: Rural Development and NGO Activities in Bangladesh.* Dhaka, Agricultural Research council.

ILO (1976). World Employment Conference, Geneva.

Inham, B. (1993). "The Meaning of Development: Interactions between New and Old Ideas," *World Development*, Vol. 21, No. 11.

Islam, M. N. and S. Hussain, 1993. "Rural Development Programs and the Role of NGOs in Bangladesh", in M. A. Quddus (ed.).*Rural Development in Bangladesh: Strategies and Experiences*, Comilla, BARD.

Karim, M. (1994). "Non-Governmental Organizations in Bangladesh: Issues of Legitimacy and Accountability", *Grassroots*, Vol. 3 No. 12, April-June.

Kegley, C. and E. Wittkopf (1986). *World politics: Trend and Transformation*, New York, St. Martin's press.

Khan, A. R. (1990). "Poverty in Bangladesh: A Consequence of and a Constraint on Growth", *Bangladesh Development Studies*, vol.18,.No. 3. Sept.

Khan, M.M. and H.M. Zafarullah (1987). "Non-Governmental Organizations in Bangladesh: A perspective", *Indian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 33, No. 3.

Khan, N.S. and K. Bhasin (1986). "Role of People's Organizations", *IFDA DOSSIER*, Vol. 53, May-June.

Khanna, B. S. (1987). "Role of Voluntary Agencies (VOLAGs) in Rural Development: Case studies from Bangladesh", *Indian Journal of public Administration*, Vol. 33, No. 3.

Korten, D. C. (1980). "Community Organisation and Rural Development: A Learning Process Approach", *Public Administration Review*, vol. 40, No. 5.

Korten, D. C. and F.B. Alfonso. (1981) *Bureaucracy and the Poor: Closing the Gap*, Singapore: McGraw Hill.

Korten, D.C. and Klauss, R. (1984). (eds.) *People Centered Development: Contributions towards Theory and Planning Frameworks*, Kumarian, West Hartford.

Korten, D. C. (1987). "Third Generation NGO strategies: A Key to People Centered Development", *World Development*, Vol 15, (supplement).

Korten, D. C. (1988). "New Roles And challenges For Asian NGOs," *ADAB News*, Vol. July-August.

Korten, D. C. (1990).*Getting to the 21th Century: Voluntary Action and the Global Agenda*, West Hartford, Connecticet :Kumarian Press.

Korten, D. C. (1991). "The Role of Non-Governmental Organizations in Development: Changing Patterns and Perspectives" in Paul, S. (et. al.) *Non-Governmental Organizations and the World Bank: Cooperation for Development*, Washington D.C.: World Bank.

Kozlowski, A. J. (1983). "International Non-Governmental Organizations as Operating Development Agencies" in Rice, A.E. (et.al.) *The Role of Non Governmental Organizations in Development*, Development centre, OECD, France.

Kramer, R .M. (1973). "Future of Voluntary Service Organization", *Social Work*, vol. 18, No. 6.

Landim, L. (1992). "What is an NGO? Notes on the Non-profit Organizations in Brazil" (paper presented to the Third International Conference on Voluntary and Non-profit Organizations, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind., 11-13 March.

Leonard, D .K. (1987). "The Political Realities of African Management," *World Development*, Vol. 15.

Lewis, J. P (1983) "Cooperation between Official Agencies and Non-governmental Organizations", in Rice, A. E. (et. al) *The Role of Non-governmental Organizations in Development Cooperation*, Development Center, OECD, France.

Livernash, R. (1992). "The Growing Influence of NGOs in the Developing World," *Environment*, June.

Maleha, C. (1995). *Working with NGOs: A Practical Guide to Operational Collaboration between the World Bank and NGOs*, Operations Policy Department, World Bank, March.

Manbach, R. Y. Fergnson and D. Lampert (1976). *The Web of International Polities: Non-state Actors in the Global System,* Englewood cliffs, Prentice Hall.

Meadows, P. (1963). *Motivation for Change and Development Administration.* Synacuse University Press.

Millar, T. C. (1994). "Conclusion: A Design Science Perspective," in Miller, T.C.,(ed.) *Public Sector Performance : A Conceptual Turning Point,* John Hopkins University Press. Barltimore, M.D.

Miller, B. D. and S.H. Khan,(1986). "Incorporating Voluntarism into Rural Development in Bangladesh," *Third World Planning Review,* Vol.8.

Ministry of Agriculture, *Bangladesh: National Minor Irrigation Census Report* Dhaka.

Moen, E., (1991). *Voluntary Sector Grassroots Development in Tamil Nadu* Tamil Nadu, India: Gandhigram Institute, Deemed University.

Montgomery, J. D. (1979). "The Populist Front in Rural Development: What shall we Eliminate the Bureaucrats and get on with the job?" *Public Administration Review,* Vol. 39.

Montgomery, J. D. (1988). *Bureaucrats And People: Grassroots Participation In Third World Development,* John Hopking University Press, Baltimor.

Nigro, F. A. and L. G. Nigro (1973).*Modern Public Administration,* Harper and Row, New-York.

OECD, (1988). *Voluntary Aid for Development: the Role of Non-Governmental Organizations,* Paris: OECD.

Paul, S. (1991). "NGOs and the World Bank: An Overview", Paul S and A. Israel (ed.) *Non-governmental Organizations And The World Bank; Cooperation for Development,* Washington, D.C. World Bank.

Peggy, A.,(1987). "Funding for NGOs: Issues and Options," *World Development,* Vol. 15 (supplement).

Population Institute, (1987). *World Bank Turns to NGOs for Support,* Popline 9, No. 1.

Rahman, M.A. (1985). "NGO Work in Organizing the Rural Poor: The perspective," *IFDA Dossier,* No. 5.

Rajni, K. (1986). "Masses, Classes and State", *Economic And Political Weekly,* Feb.1.

Report of the Task Forces on Bangladesh Developmental Strategies for the 1990s: Managing the Developmental Process, Vol. 2.

Rice, A. E. (1983). *The Role of Non-governmental Organizations in Development Cooperation,* Development Center, OECD, France.

Robey, B., S. O. Rutstein and L. Morris,(1993). "The Fertility Decline in Developing Countries," *Scientific American,* December.

Robinson, M. (1993). "Governance Democracy and Conditionally: NGOs and the New Policy Agenda," in A. Clayton (ed.). *Governance Democracy and Conditionally: What Role for NGOs?* Oxford International NGO Strategies and Research center.

Salmen L.F., and A. P. Eaves. (1989) *World Bank Work with Non-Governmental Organizations.* Policy Planning and Research working paper 305, Washington D.C.: World Bank.

Salmen, L. F. (1992). *Reducing Poverty: An Institutional Perspective*, Poverty and Policy Sciences, Paper No. 1, Washington, D.C. World Bank.

Schneider, B. (1985). "La Revolution des Pieds Nus," *Rapport au Club de Rome*, Paris.

Schumacher, E.F. (1973). *Small is Beautiful,* London Abacus.

Sethi, N. K. (1990). "Project Management" in Singh, M. K. and A. Mahadevan (eds.) *Project Evaluation and Management,* Discovery Publishing House, New Delhi.

Shelly, M. R. (1992). "NGO Movement in Bangladesh", *Working paper.*

Shukrullah, (1993). "The Need for Development Administration in Developing World," *Asian Profile,* Vol.21, no.5.

Siddique, N. A. (1994)."Towards Conceptualizing Development," *Social Science Reviews,* vol. 11, no. 2.

Sisaye,S.(1980). "The Political Economy of Aid and Development Assistant in Third World Countries, 1945-1979: The Background for The 1980's," *Rural Sociological Society (RSS).*

Sobhan, R. (1982). *The Crisis of External Dependence: The Political Economy of Foreign Aid*, Dhaka: University press Limited.

Sobhan, R. and D Bhattacharya. (1990). "Donors Perspective and Influence on Domestic Economic Policy" in Rehman S. (ed.) *From Aid Dependence to Self-Reliance: Development Options for Bangladesh*, BIDS.

Sommer, J. G. (1977). *Beyond Charity: U.S. Voluntary Aid for a Changing Third World*. Washington D.C.: ODC.

Stevens, W. K. (1994). *Third World Gains in Birth Control: Development Isn't Only Answer*, New York Times,January.

Sultan, T. (1990). "Partners in Rural Development: GO-NGO Collaboration," in M.A. Quddus (ed.) *Rural Development in Bangladesh: Strategies and Experiences*, Comilla, BARD.

Sweet, C. F.and P. F. Weisel, (1979). "Process versus Blueprint Models for Designing Rural Development Projects," in Honadle, G. and R. Klauss, (eds.), *International Development Administration: Implementation, Analysis for Development Projects*, Praeger, New York.

Swerdlow, (1963). *Development Administration: Concepts and Problems*. Synacuse University Press.

Tandon, R. (1987). "The Relationship between Non-Governmental Organizations and Government", *Society for Participatory Research in Asia*, New Delhi.

Task Force (1990). *Report of the Task Forces on Bangladesh, Development Strategies for the 1990s: Managing the Development Process*, Vol. 2, Dhaka University Press Limited.

Taylor, P. (1984). *Non-State Actors in International Politics: From Trans-regional to sub-state Organizations*, Boulder, West-View Press.

Therien, J. P (1991)." Non-Governmental Organizations and International Development Assistance", *Canadian Journal of Development Studies*, vol. 12, No. 2.

Tilakaratna, S. (1984) Status Paper on "NGO Involvement in Rural Development: Some Experience from Srilanka," *World Employment Program Research*, Working paper 37, Dec. ILO.

Todaro, M. P. (1990). *Economics for Developing World*. London, Longman.

UNESCAP (1989). *A Study on Measures to Enhance the Contribution of Non-Governmental Organizations to Social Development*, United Nations Economic And Social Commissions for Asia and the Pacific, N.Y.

UNDP (1988). *Bangladesh Agriculture Sector Review* Dhaka: UNDP.

UNDP, (19910). *Human Development Report*, Dhaka: UNDP.

UNDTCD, (1982). *Elements of Institution Building*, Institute of Public Administration, Dept. of Technical Co-operation for Development New York, United Nations.

Uphoff, N. and J. Cohen (1979) *Feasibility and Application for Rural Development: Analysis of Asian Experience*, Ithaca, NY: Rural Development Committee, Cornell University Press.

Uphoff, N. (1987). "Activating Community Capacity for Water Management in Sri-Lanka" in D.C. Korten (ed.) *Community Management: Asian Experience*, West Hartfard: Kumarian Press.

Uphoff, N. (1993). "Grassroots Organizations and NGOs in Rural Development: Opportunities with Diminishing States and Expanding Markets," *World Development*, Vol.21, No.4.

Verma, S. P. and S. K. Sharma, (1984). *Development Administration*, Indian Institution of Public Administration, New Delhi.

Weidner, E. (1962). "Development Administration: A New Focus for Research," in Heady, F. and S. Stockes (eds.), *Papers in Comparative Public Administration* Ann Arbor, University of Michigan.

Weisbond, B. A. (1988). *The Non-profit Economy*. Cambridge, M. A: Harvard University Press.

West Harfort, Connecticut Kumirian press.

White, S. C. (1991). "Evaluating the Impact of NGOs in Rural Poverty Alleviation: Bangladesh Country Study," *Working Papers*, Overseas Development Institute, October, London.

Wignaraja, P. (1984). "From the Village to the Global Order, Further Reflection towards a Theory of Rural Development", *Agrarian Reforms and Rural Poverty*, Rome: FAO.

Wijeweera, B. S. (1995). "Institution Building for Development Administration: NGOs as Institutions for Poverty Alleviation," *Marga*, Vol. 13, No. 3.

Williams, A. (1990). "A Growing Role for NGOs in Development." *Finance and Development*, December.

Wilson, S. G. (1983)." The Role of Non-Governmental. Organizations in Aid to the Least-Developed countries" in Rice, A. E. (ed.) *The Role of Non-Governmental Organizations in Development*, Development center. OECD, France.

Workshop Notes, NGO Workshop, organized at the Asian Institute of Technology, Bangkok. October 17-21, 1988.

World Bank, (1983). *Bangladesh Selected Issues in Rural Employment*, Washington D.C.: March.

World Bank, (1989). *Cooperation between the World Bank and NGOs*, Progress Report.

World Bank, (1990). *How the World Bank works with Non-governmental Organizations: A World Bank Publication*, Washington, D. C. World Bank.

World Bank, (1990). *Bangladesh Poverty and Public Experience: An Evaluation of The Impact of Selected Government Programs*, Report No. 7946, Bangladesh, Washington, D.C. World Bank.

World Bank, (1990). *Bangladesh-Poverty and Public Expenditures: An Evaluation of the Impart of Selected GO Programs*: Report No. 7946-Bangladesh, Washington, D.C.

World Bank, (1991, a). *How the World Bank works with Non-Governmental Organizations*, Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

World Bank, (1991, b). *World Development Report 1991: The challenge of Development*, Oxford: Oxford University press.

World Bank, (1992), *Non-Governmental Organizations and Lessons Learned*, Bangkok, May.

World Bank, (1995). *Cooperation between the World Bank and NGOs: F.Y. 1994*, Progress Report, Operation Policy Department, Washington D.C.: World Bank, February.

World Bank, (1996). *Pursuing Common Goals: Strengthening Relations between Government and Development NGOs*, World Bank Resident Mission, Dhaka.

Zeuli, K. (1991). Solving the Problems of the Third World through Women (Un-published senior thesis, Vassar College.

Index

Annual Development Program 34, 36, 40
Asian Development Bank 31, 60, 90, 117, 119
Annual Technical Assistance Program 39
Asa 48
ADAB (Association of development agencies in Bangladesh) 67, 69, 84
Activities of NGO 8, 28, 86, 138
Access to Government services 71
Activate local administration 71
Accountability 18, 19, 43, 46, 49, 69, 76, 84-86, 94, 109, 132, 140
BRAC 11, 48, 74, 77, 79, 117, 125, 126, 128, 129, 131, 132, 147, 148
Brandt commission 13
Baptist missionary society 13
Alternative development 30, 56, 63, 87
Birth rate 107
Blueprint Approach 17, 18, 19, 21
Classification 26, 27, 28, 64
Care 4, 11, 26, 52, 70-72, 77, 80, 95, 108-113, 115, 126, 132, 138, 147, 148
Capacity 6-9, 18, 28, 42, 48, 53-60, 64, 70, 76, 78, 84, 91, 97, 113, 117, 119, 124, 129, 132, 146
Christian mission hospital 63
Cyclone of 1970 63
Credit 69, 73, 76, 79, 99, 102, 113, 116, 120
Capacity building in planning & management 70
Consciousness raising 53, 71, 77, 91
Commercial venture 74
Concern 7, 26, 30, 43, 77, 81, 111
Contract failure theory 4
Consumer control theory 4, 5, 142, 146
Commercial or private sector 24
Corruption 42, 43, 46, 49, 54, 78, 137, 138
Co-operative Society 77, 145
Child health initiative for lasting development (Child) 20, 21, 33, 47, 48, 118, 126, 129, 130, 139, 140, 142, 143, 145, 147-149
Development management 2, 6, 11, 13, 17, 18,
Development 1, 2, 6-11, 11, 13-18, 21
Development partner 1
Development administration 13, 15-17, 145
Development assistance 51, 56, 60, 61, 84
Development assistance committee 61
Development of appropriate irrigation technologies 71
Debate on the role of NGOs 74
Development activities 9, 25, 51, 57, 58, 67, 77, 91, 92, 97, 145, 148
Emergence of NGO 51, 52, 62, 63, 66
Expansion of the NGOs 54, 145
Empowerment 14-16, 18, 26, 33, 61, 65, 70, 77, 79
Development process 8, 53, 61, 67, 90, 91, 106, 115, 117, 147
Employment generation 70, 92, 125, 147
Environment 1, 7, 19, 22, 23, 26, 34, 43, 46, 47, 49, 53-55, 67, 79, 82, 84, 94, 95, 102, 114-119, 134, 135, 146, 147, 151
Expanded program on immunization (EPI) 128
Five year plan 5, 7, 15, 35, 39, 119
Family planning 11, 26, 65, 67, 70, 73, 76-79, 97, 103, 107, 111, 115, 118, 126, 128, 135, 142, 147
Development of children 72
Family planning facilitation project (FP.FP) 126
Good Governance 8, 53
GO-NGO collaboration 2, 8-10, 21, 31, 79, 87-94, 96-106, 114-118,120, 124, 125, 131-134, 136-138, 140, 141, 147, 149, 151
Grassroots 7, 9, 10, 63, 66, 70, 77, 80, 90, 92, 105
Grameen bank 69, 77, 113
Group formation 7, 77, 117, 124
Horticulture for export (Hortex) 85
Helen Keller international 95
Fundamentalism 79
Human development 8, 14, 15, 74
Health and family planning 11, 26, 65, 76, 79, 103, 107, 108, 110, 113-115118, 125, 128, 135, 142, 149
Health and nutritional knowledge 70
Heed-Bangladesh 77
Humanitarian and legal aid 72
Institution building 13, 21, 23, 63, 77, 142
Income generating 7, 117, 118, 124, 135, 148
International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF) 109
Institution 2-7, 9, 13, 21-25, 48, 63, 73, 77, 84, 126, 142, 152
Income earning through enterprise development 70

Liberation war in 1971 63
Leadership development 71
Learning process approach 17-19, 21
Mobilization of target group 71
Mirpur agriculture workshop & training service (MAWTS) 71
Micro-credit 69, 73, 79, 118
Micro-level 30
NGO affairs bureau 7, 9, 67, 73, 84
Mother and child health and family planning (MCH-FP) 128
Mass education 120, 131
Macro-economic development 81
Norad 6, 76
OECD 25, 52, 61
Official Development Assistance 60, 61
Occupational skill training 70
Non-traditional agricultural extension 71
National development 1, 7, 24, 43, 53, 76, 77, 84, 93, 103, 104, 106, 114, 115, 118, 119, 142, 146
Number of NGOs 26, 67, 73, 76, 83, 11, 117, 119
National population program 19
Non-formal primary education (NFPE) 125
Non-formal education 65, 69, 79, 118
National economic council (NEC) 38, 39
Public Bureaucracy 4, 5, 74
Programming strategies 28, 31
People's movement 30
Project management 30, 31, 33-34, 41-43, 45
Planning commission 34-38, 41, 43, 86
Planning process 35, 37, 38, 103
Proshika 48, 117
Philosophy of NGO 51
People's participation 6, 15, 21, 132
Participatory development 53, 58, 74, 65
Productive assets 64, 70
Political participation 70, 77
Polli kormo shohayok foundation (PKSF) 74
Process of development 10, 31, 89, 90, 97
Population 48, 54, 59, 107-110, 112, 125, 129
Public goods theory 3
Public administration 4, 13, 15, 16, 42, 49, 145
Participatory group discussion 71
Poverty alleviation 3, 63, 67, 80, 88, 89, 115, 117, 135, 148
Pathfinder international 128
Rangpur Dinajpur rural services (RDRS) 71
Regulation 81, 83, 86, 102, 151
Reproductive health 71, 110
Relief and rehabilitation 64, 72
SIDA 6
Save the children 52
Sources of funding of the NGOs 72
Structural adjustment 6, 105
Social services 2, 78, 108
Subsidy theory 3
Sustainable development 29, 64, 89, 116
Social institution 108, 113
Socio-economic development 15, 16, 115, 117, 119
Third sector 1, 3, 53
Transparency 43, 49, 76, 84, 86, 94, 152
Target group 6, 26, 29, 60, 69, 71, 74, 93, 129, 132, 139
USAID 6, 42, 128
Urban and rural development 72
Unsatisfactory performance 2, 43
Voluntary 16, 24, 27, 33, 51-53, 56, 64, 66, 82-83, 85, 109
World bank 6, 8, 9, 25, 31, 34, 42, 55, 57, 67, 73, 76, 82, 90, 97, 102, 103, 106, 107, 117, 119
Women development 69, 118

Dr. Afroza Begum

Professor Dr. Afroza Begum is the Founder Departmental head of Public Administration, University of Comilla. She was the Chairperson of Public Administration, University of Chittagong, Bangladesh. She holds her doctorate degree in Public Administration from the University of Dhaka. This book grew out from her doctoral dissertation. She has experience in teaching, research and management consultancy. Her area of specialization includes Public Administration with particular interest in NGO Affairs, Government - NGO Collaboration, Development Management, Local and Urban government in Bangladesh and Human Resource Management. She was a junior research fellow of Bangladesh University Grants Commission. She was associated with the research project "NGOs in Development" funded by the Academy of Finland and Coordinated the department of Administrative Science, University of Tampere. She worked as a member in "Danih NGO Impact Study," a research project financed by Danish Government. She has been a member of International Society for Third Sector Research (ISTR), the Johns Hopkins University, U.S.A since 2000. She attended a number of international conference held in Nepal, Thailand, Japan and Ireland. The author has published several research papers in reputed journals of home and abroad.

Also from AHDPH

Development Administration in Bangladesh
Motahar Hussain
Focus Group Discussion in Training
Needs Assessment and Evaluation
(Theory & Practice)
Mozammel Haque Neogi
Pathways to Women's Empowerment in Bangladesh
Farzana Naz
Aged Women in Urban Area of Dhaka City in Bangladesh
Dr. Nilufar Nahar
Women in Bangladesh Parliament
Jalal Firoj
Policy Making in Bangladesh
A Study of the Health Policy Process
Dr. Ferdous Arfina Osman
Government-NGO Interface in Development Management
Dr. Afroza Begum
Sustainable Eco-Tourism
As a Practical Site Management Policy
M. Shafi Noor Islam
Local Government: Local People's Institution
A Compilation on Local Government Issue
Bishawjit Mallick
The Bureaucratic Ascendancy
Public Administration in Bangladesh the First Three Decades
Habib Zafarullah & Mohammad Mohabbat Khan
Dominant Executive and Dormant Legislature
Executive-Legislature Relations in Bangladesh
Mohammad Mohabbat Khan
The Politics and Development of the
Jamaat-e-Islami Bangladesh
Bhuian Md. Monowar Kabir
Braiding Morphdynamics of the Brahmaputra-Jamuna River
Dr. Nazrul Islam
Environment Impact Assessment for Changing World
Dr. Subrota Kumar Saha
Impact of Flood in Urban Bangladesh
Dr. Nabul Islam
Rural Urban Planning 01
Golam Mustafa
The ABC of Management
Teach Yourself
Md. Mozammel Haque
Administrative Culture in Bangladesh
Ishtiaq Jamil
Divorced Women in Bangladesh
Psycho-social and Economic Conditions
Dr Neaz Ahmed
Women In Bangladesh
From Inequality to Empowerment
Nazmunnessa Mahtab

ISBN 984-8360-00-X
9780984700196